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ABSTRACT

Based on national replies to joint UNESCO/OECD/SOEC (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization/ Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development/Statistical Office of the European Communities) educational questionnaires, this compendium of statistical information is the third in a series. It is divided into two parts. Part A gives a general overview of the situation regarding education in 1986-87 and presents, in the form of charts accompanied by brief summaries, a number of the main indicators for comparing educational systems among OECD member countries. Part B deals with six major topics, with a chapter devoted to each: (1) pupils, (2) teachers, (3) students, (4) enrollment rates per year of age, (5) qualifications, and (6) expenditures. The right-hand pages contain both absolute figures and calculations as well as charts showing annual changes between 1985-86 and 1986-87. On the left-hand pages, there is a brief commentary on the information presented. The appendix presents a separate diagram for each member country, summarizing each educational system using the terminology of the country in focus. (JB)

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Education in OECD Countries 1986-87

A COMPENDIUM OF STATISTICAL INFORMATION

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

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- to achieve the highest sustainable economic growth and employment and a rising standard of living in Member countries, while maintaining financial stability, and thus to contribute to the development of the world economy;
- to contribute to sound economic expansion in Member as well as non-member countries in the process of economic development; and
- to contribute to the expansion of world trade on a multilateral, non-discriminatory basis in accordance with international obligations.

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The preparation of this compendium forms part of OECD's work on education and training and on analyses of country policies in this field. It derives from the request of the Education Committee to have data for all education systems, that would permit each country to compare itself with the others and to assess more effectively common problems confronting them, while recognising differences in institutional structures.

In this work, the Secretariat was earlier assisted and supported by the Working Party on Educational Statistics and Indicators, which was composed of representatives of the national statistical services. Since its dissolution in 1981, that assistance and support has been provided by those members of this Working Party who agreed to act as national correspondents for direct consultation when problems arise concerning national statistics.

This compendium, published on the responsibility of the Secretary-General of the OECD, has been prepared by Monique Solliliage of the Education and Training Division, with the help in particular of Pascal Marianna.

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PREFACE

OECD's work in the field of educational statistics began with the establishment of the Committee for Scientific and Technical Personnel in the late 1950s. As this Committee's programme developed, educational statistics were increasingly considered as an integral element for the development of educational planning. Along with the collection and classification of educational statistics, the OECD focused on methodological questions which led initially, at the request of the European Ministers of Education, meeting in London in 1964 for their fourth Conference, to the publication in 1967 of a *handbook* entitled *Methods and Statistical Needs for Educational Planning*. Following that were published from 1972 to 1975 a *Classification of Educational Systems*, for each Member country, that sought to facilitate the international comparability of educational statistics.

Other OECD analyses drew on these classifications and statistics, in particular: *Development of Higher Education, 1950-1967*, OECD, Paris 1970; *Occupational and Educational Structures of the Labour Force and Levels of Economic Development*, in two volumes published in 1970 and 1971; the *Educational Statistics Year Book*, brought out in 1974 and 1975, also in two volumes; *Educational Statistics in OECD Countries*, published in 1981; *Statistics on Teaching Personnel: Needs and Methods*, a document released for general distribution in 1983; and *Educational Trends in the 1970s – A Quantitative Analysis*, published in 1984.

During this period, the UNESCO Office of Statistics in turn elaborated the International Standard Classification of Education, commonly referred to as ISCED. ISCED was adopted by all the UNESCO Member States in 1978. A couple of years later, the OECD adopted ISCED at the request of its Member countries in order to reduce unnecessary duplication of workload and to harmonize the data published by these two international organisations.

In all the work involving international comparisons in the education field, the OECD depended essentially therefore on the replies to the three questionnaires that UNESCO sent out annually to *all* its Member States. As at present, the first dealt with pre-primary, primary, and secondary education, the second with educational expenditure and financing, and the third with higher education.

The opportunity to review the entire situation was given when the European Community Member States proposed that the Statistical Office of the European Communities (SOEC) consider the value of joint questionnaires with UNESCO and OECD.

There ensued careful scrutiny of the questionnaires, taking account of developments concerning both the content of national statistical publications and the policy problems confronting the various countries or groups of countries. From this, the OECD Secretariat concluded that enlarged questionnaires would be useful for its needs. But if the questionnaires were to be extended in size and detail and sent to all the UNESCO countries, that would also result in a greater demand for information from developing countries that might tend to swamp the main statistics, possibly obscuring points of particular relevance to their needs and concerns. Conversely, if the questionnaires were kept in their existing form, the OECD and SOEC would miss essential data for constructing policy-relevant indicators for their particular Member countries.

The most satisfactory solution to the differing needs and demands seemed to lie in establishing two separate sets of questionnaires, one for the UNESCO Member States not belonging to the OECD, and another, more elaborated set for the OECD countries (and hence for EEC countries too as the latter overlap entirely with the former). Following detailed negotiations, this solution was approved, and new versions of the joint UNESCO/OECD/SOEC questionnaires were prepared which were accepted first by the countries belonging to both the OECD and EC and then by the remaining ones in the OECD. The first school year that these new questionnaires covered was 1984-85 (some countries, which had already replied to the former UNESCO questionnaires for 1983-84, also agreed to complete the new ones for that year). As before, the new questionnaires concern only education provided in schools and universities or other establishments that are considered as part of the overall education system, normally with access to each level being possible only on completion of the preceding level as do the UNESCO non-OECD questionnaires. All training activities for adults or specific target groups such as young people seeking jobs, unemployed, etc. are thus excluded.

The introduction of the new questionnaires did not give rise to any outstanding problems nor, despite the increase in the amount of information requested, did countries complain about the additional demands they made of national statistical departments. The widespread adoption of computers by these departments was probably a major factor easing the reply to such requests for information. Even so, some countries to date are unable to provide certain information either because they do not collect it or because a particular item does not apply to their system (numbers of pupils who repeat a school year is a good example). With each year, however, most countries improve the quantity and quality of the information they provide.

This does not mean that all problems concerning international comparability of data in a domain as complex and so closely formed by national traditions and culture as the educational one have been resolved. There are many sources of problems. A first set derive from ISCED itself, as a classification of programmes of study grouped by level and type of education. For while it is a relatively straightforward matter for the purposes of international comparison to classify enrolments by level of education (pre-primary, primary, secondary, and higher), it is already more difficult to do so by type of education (general, technical and vocational). Particularly in countries where education is organised along comprehensive lines, distinctions by "type" can only be made, if at all, in terms of the contents in the programmes followed by pupils, and even then it has to be decided on the proportion of technical or vocational subjects in a given programme (if that is possible) that is to be considered as constituting "technical" or "vocational". A further problem is, of course, that pupils may modify their courses from one year to another.

The difficulties are greater still when it comes to teaching staff and expenditure and relating these to pupils. In most countries, information on teaching staff and expenditure cannot be provided by level and type of education, as in the case for pupils, since the relevant data are normally classified by establishment and the same establishment may provide education of different levels (for example, both pre-primary and primary) or types of education (such as general and technical or vocational, non-university and university). With regard to expenditure, a column has been added to the questionnaire items requesting the breakdown by level of education and for the number of pupils associated with this expenditure. Unfortunately, few countries complete this. A major reason for this is probably that, in many countries, the questionnaires on expenditure are completed by different individuals or departments from those answering these on pupils and students, with insufficient co-ordination between them.

Similarly, to be able to compare pupils and teachers, it would be useful to obtain information on numbers of pupils per establishment. This is currently under review but the changes implied in the questionnaires require the agreement of the three international organisations concerned. This alone would not, however, overcome the problems associated with calculating the number of pupils per teacher: few countries are currently able to provide data for teaching staff, and in some cases even for pupils/students, in terms of the full-time equivalents on which such calculations must be based. And, to complicate matters further, the categories of staff counted as "teachers" vary considerably from one country to another. To gain a clearer view of this matter in the different countries, the OECD, SOEC, and UNESCO (for their European States) have made a request for data on the teacher/pupil ratios calculated on the basis of national standards and definitions. In order to understand the basis for these ratios, the request asked for detailed information on the categories of personnel thereby taken into account and on the manner in which account is taken of part-time teaching staff and pupils/students, teachers working at more than one level or in more than one type of education and overtime worked by teachers. Finally, it asked for the methods used in each national case of calculating full-time equivalents. Of the OECD countries, nine replied: Canada, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States. Australia and Greece provided partial answers in the form of notes attached to the replies to the questionnaires. Apart from the countries that reported that teacher/pupil ratios were not calculated at the national level, few of the replies indeed contained sufficient information for the data provided to be used for international comparisons.

Other difficulties with international comparisons derive not from the problems of ISCED itself but from its interpretation by the different countries, and this applies particularly to the third level (higher education). The criteria used in ISCED for the definition of the three levels in higher education – 5 (preparing a diploma or certificate giving a lower qualification than a first university degree), 6 (a first university degree course or equivalent) and 7 (post-graduate degree programme) – cover a number of defining elements. These are duration (less than 3 years for level 5, 3 to 5 years for level 6), contents of the programmes (often more practical in the first case, more theoretical in the second), type of qualification the programme leads to (a higher technical certificate, nursing certificate, etc. for level 5, an academic diploma such as a Bachelor's degree, or a professional diploma – engineer, doctor of medicine – for level 6, with level 7 open only to students holding a level 6 diploma). Problems arise because certain countries use only the first criterion in classifying their programmes, i.e. the length of studies. This leads, for example, to the inclusion under level 6 of courses preparing students for diplomas such as higher technical certificates because they last three years, and hence are judged comparable with first university degrees that last this long in some countries. It can lead too to the inclusion under level 7 of students preparing a first university degree where these studies last more than five years. The first example results in few or no students being counted as studying at level 5; the second in the disappearance of university students counted at level 6. But the point is that in higher education, where the organisation of studies, requirements to

attend courses, and examinations vary greatly from one country to another, the duration of studies itself is not very meaningful from the international viewpoint. Similarly, with regard to part-time education, particularly at the secondary level, and on the basis of pupils' ages, it would seem that some countries take different types of adult training into account which, as previously stated, should normally be excluded. This should not exclude apprenticeships which contain some formal education element.

The national interest in international comparisons is still growing and has again been demonstrated through the establishment of the CERI project on international educational indicators. The 18-month exploratory phase of this project started in June 1988 for completion in late 1989 before decisions are taken about continued work in this field.

The immediate objective of this project is to give countries an institutional framework for co-operation on the development and assessment of educational indicators as instruments for evaluating education systems. The ultimate aim is to develop a system of internationally comparable indicators that will make a useful input into policy definition and educational decision-making in Member countries.

It is a decentralised project with multinational networks organised around five major areas of interest. The network stature was chosen so that countries can meet, compare national experience, and work collaboratively on these indicators of direct interest to them. Each network contains a lead country which has volunteered to take responsibility for proposing an operational plan, co-ordinating activities within the group, assembling data, summarising them with the aim of developing internationally comparable educational indicators.

As they stand at present, the five networks are as follows:

Network 1: Enrolments, Career Paths, and School-Leavers;
Network 2: Outcomes of Education;
Network 3: Ecology of School;
Network 4: Costs and Resources;
Network 5: Attitudes and Expectations.

In short, although international comparisons on educational statistics and indicators have already improved considerably, they will only increase in validity and reliability through the continued combined efforts of the international organisations and their Member countries.

PRESENTATION

This compendium of statistical information, the third in the series and the first to appear as a publication, is based on the country replies to the joint UNESCO/OECD/SOEC (Statistical Office of the European Communities) questionnaires. The information therefore applies only to the regular national education systems, excluding pupils and students studying abroad and the various training activities for adults or special groups organised outside these systems.

Like its predecessors, this compendium is divided into two parts. Part A gives a general overview of the situation as regards education in 1986-87 and presents, in the form of charts accompanied by brief summaries, a number of the main indicators for education.

Part B deals with six major topics, with a chapter devoted to each: 1. pupils; 2. teachers; 3. students; 4. enrolment rates per year of age (except for the years that, for most countries, correspond to compulsory education); 5. qualifications; 6. expenditure. The right-hand pages contain both absolute figures and calculations as well as charts showing, for the most part, annual changes between 1985-86 and 1986-87. On the left-hand pages, there is a brief commentary on the information presented and attention is drawn to any differences that may exist between the standard international definitions and those adopted by certain countries on specific items. The standard definitions are presented at the end of each chapter, along with indication of other data included in the replies to the questionnaire but not incorporated in this compendium.

The tables only refer to those countries that provided relevant data for 1986-87 in due course. However, when data for 1985-86 were available, they were included in the tables. In some cases this means that there may be some overlap with the data that appeared in the 1985-86 edition.

The compendium's Annex includes a table devoted to the age at which compulsory education begins and finishes in each OECD country, its duration, and the months in which the school year starts and finishes. The main part of the Annex, however, is the presentation of a separate diagram for each Member country, summarising each education system using the terminology of the country in question. To facilitate inter-country comparisons, the sections and terms used to show the national system and the corresponding level or type of education following the standard definitions are coloured identically.

Abbreviations used for the countries in the charts

AUS	Australia	LUX	Luxembourg
OST	Austria	NET	Netherlands
BEL	Belgium	NZL	New Zealand
CAN	Canada	NOR	Norway
DEN	Denmark	POR	Portugal
FIN	Finland	SPA	Spain
FRA	France	SWE	Sweden
GER	Germany	SWI	Switzerland
GRE	Greece	TUR	Turkey
IRE	Ireland	UKM	United Kingdom
ITA	Italy	USA	United States
JPN	Japan	YUG	Yugoslavia

Conventional signs:

– Category not applicable or magnitude nil.
.. Data non available.

A. GENERAL OVERVIEW

Part A contains no absolute figures or definitions; these will be found in the corresponding sections of Part B as indicated below each chart. However, to make charts illustrating more than two aspects easier to understand, the source data are presented in tabular form at the end of Part A.

I. POPULATION STRUCTURE

Population structure has a key influence on education both in determining pupil numbers, in particular it is on the population structure alone that the numbers in the compulsory school age groups depend, and also because it is the economically active population which has to carry most of the costs of education. Population structure also influences how public spending is distributed among the different items, especially health spending which is proportionally higher for the very young and for the old, spending on social services for the different population groups, particularly very young children (crèches, day nurseries, etc.) and the retired (financial support for the most impoverished, old people's homes, etc.).

Taking Turkey and Germany, the two extreme cases in the table opposite, as examples, it can be seen that Turkey's proportion in the 5-14 age group, a close though not exact fit with the compulsory schooling age group, is almost two-and-a-half-times as many as Germany's, while education costs are having to be borne by a population that is more than 15 per cent lower. However, while Turkey has proportionally two-and-a-half times as many children aged 4 and under as Germany, it has one-third as many 65 and over. For an equal degree of school attendance, the proportion of the population in education will therefore be higher in a country with a young population than in a country whose population is ageing and the cost will have to be borne by relatively fewer people.

II. POPULATION AGED 3 TO 24 AND POPULATION IN EDUCATION

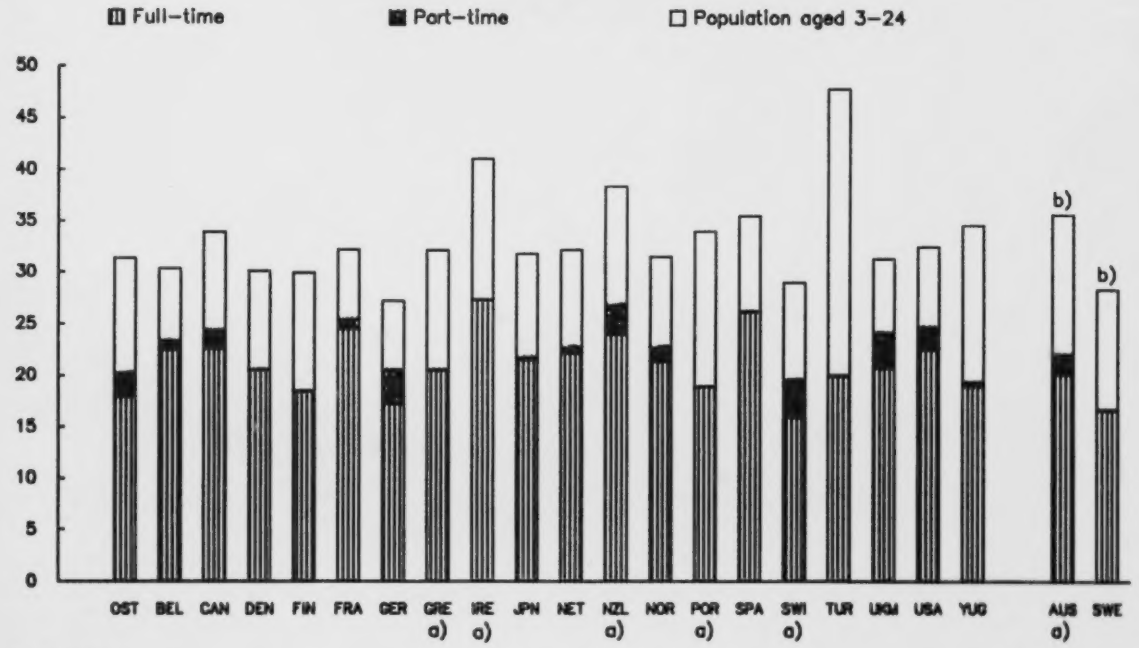
Chart I illustrates the influence of the demographic structure on the population in education. Considering only the hatched portion of the histograms indicating the weight of total pupil and student numbers in the population as a whole, it can be seen to vary, in those countries having data on all levels of education, from 18.5 per cent in Finland to 27.4 per cent in Ireland. Turkey ranks fourteenth in the 20 countries studied in terms of full-time attendance and ranks fifteenth if part-time attendance is included. But if this proportion is compared with that of the 3-24 age group, generally chosen as corresponding closely enough to the potential population in education, the situation is very different: Ireland, with 66.7 per cent, ranks only thirteenth and Turkey, with just 42 per cent, comes far behind the other countries. Interestingly, the leading countries are France and Belgium where all the 3- to 6-year-olds are at school (see Chart VI A), and the United Kingdom where compulsory schooling starts at age 5. It can also be seen that the weight of the different age groups within the potential population in education varies from one country to another. For example, the 16-19 age group in Sweden is 20 per cent larger than the 3-6 age group, while in Turkey it is 12 per cent smaller. Consequently, a rise in the enrolment rate for the 16-19 age group would have the effect in Sweden of bringing into the system a larger number of young people than an equivalent rise for the 3-6 age group, while in Turkey it would have the opposite effect.

Table I. **BREAKDOWN OF THE TOTAL POPULATION BY AGE GROUPS, end of June 1986 (%)**

	0-4	5-14	15-64	65+
Australia	7.5	15.6	66.4	10.5
Austria	5.9	12.0	67.6	14.5
Belgium	6.0	12.6	67.4	14.1
Canada	7.2	14.2	68.0	10.7
Denmark	5.2	12.9	66.6	15.3
Finland	6.6	12.8	68.0	12.7
France	6.8	14.2	65.9	13.2
Germany	4.9	10.0	70.1	15.1
Greece	6.3	14.2	66.0	13.5
Iceland	8.5	17.4	63.7	10.3
Ireland	9.2	19.8	60.2	10.9
Italy [a]	5.3	14.0	67.8	12.9
Japan	6.1	15.0	68.4	10.5
Luxembourg	5.7	11.3	69.7	13.3
Netherlands	6.0	13.0	68.8	12.3
New Zealand	7.7	16.4	65.5	10.5
Norway	6.1	13.5	64.4	16.0
Portugal	6.8	16.2	64.8	12.2
Spain	6.3	16.3	65.2	12.2
Sweden	5.7	12.3	64.5	17.5
Switzerland	5.4	11.6	68.4	14.7
Turkey	12.4	23.5	59.4	4.7
United Kingdom	6.4	12.6	65.7	15.3
United States	7.5	14.0	66.4	12.1
Yugoslavia	7.8	15.9	67.7	8.6

a) End of June 1985.

I. THE POPULATION AGED 3-24 AND THE POPULATION IN EDUCATION AS PERCENTAGES OF THE TOTAL POPULATION in 1986-87



a) 1985-86
b) Excluding pre-primary

III. ENROLMENT IN THE DIFFERENT LEVELS OF EDUCATION

The breakdown of the school population by level of education (Chart II) varies according to country and level. Here again the demographic factor plays a role since it affects the different levels in different ways. In a country whose birthrate has been declining for some time, lower levels of education will have a smaller share than in a country with a steady or rising birthrate. Furthermore, the different levels do not always cover the same number of years of study, particularly in the case of the first level and second level-first stage (for more details, see the different sections in Chapter I of Part B and the education system organisation diagrams attached as annexes). This is one reason for grouping the first level and the second level-first stage together, the other being that in most countries they comprise the period of compulsory education, which makes it possible to see what proportion of the total school population this accounts for. There are no figures for pre-primary education in Australia and Sweden, where the share of each of the other levels is consequently overstated. The same applies to Luxembourg where third level education is practically non-existent. These three countries are not taken into account in the following analysis. Pupils receiving special education within ordinary schools are not distinguished from others, which is why they do not appear in all countries as a specific category.

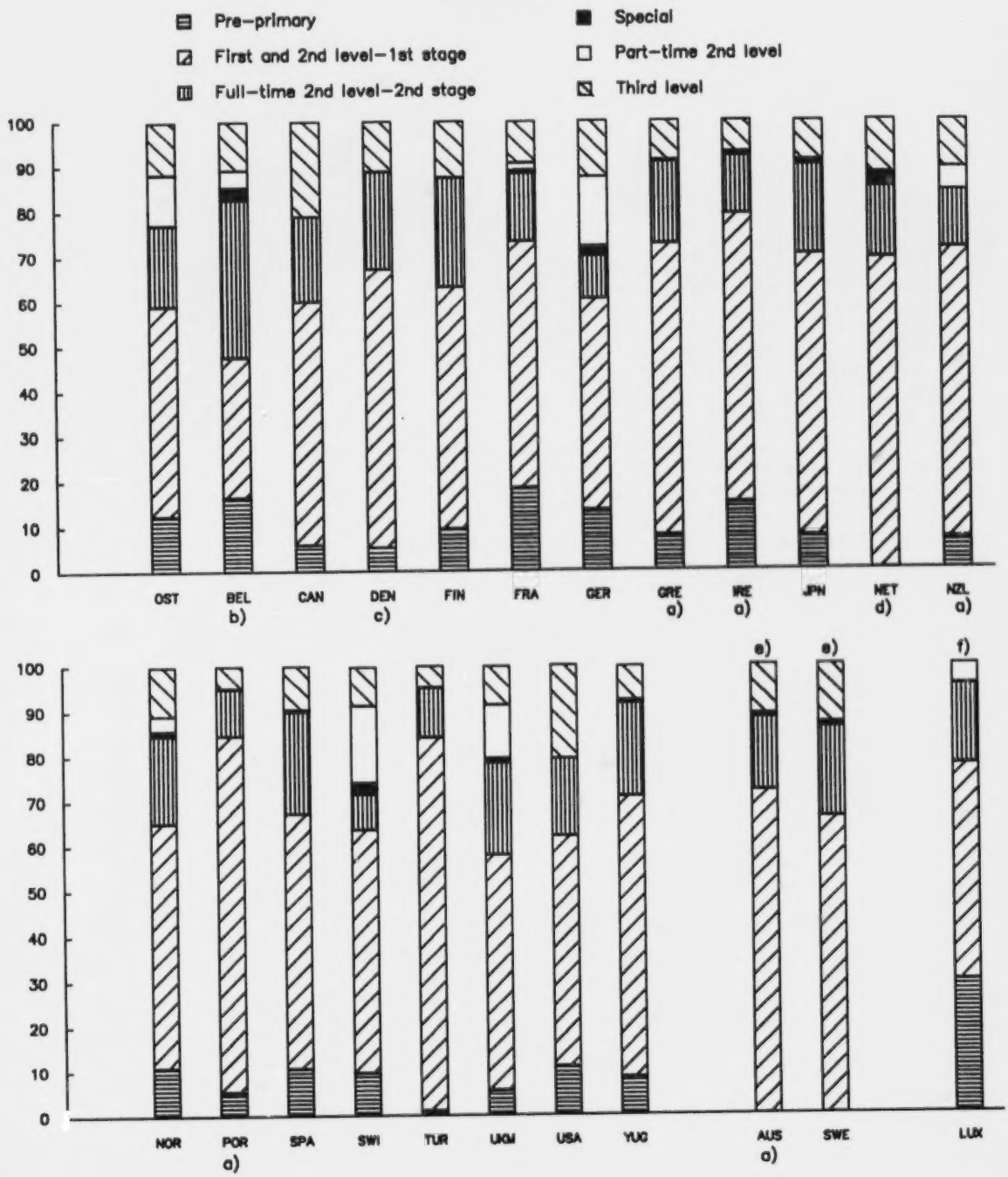
In every country except Austria and Germany, the numbers enrolled in the first level and second level-first stage account for more than 50 per cent of total enrolments, between 62 and 70 per cent in eight countries and 80 per cent or over in Portugal and Turkey, even though compulsory schooling there does not yet cover the whole of the second level-first stage.

The proportion enrolled in pre-primary education varies to an even greater extent. Pre-primary education is virtually non-existent in Turkey and the proportion it accounts for in the United Kingdom is relatively small (though compulsory education begins at age 5 in the United Kingdom), as it is in Denmark and Portugal. By contrast, it represents 15 per cent in Ireland, over 16 per cent in Belgium and 18 per cent in France.

For full-time second level-second stage education, excluding Turkey and Portugal, whose priority remains the compulsory school period, the gap between countries is narrower with the figure ranging between 13 and 24 per cent except in Germany and, more especially, Switzerland, both of which have a particularly high proportion of part-time pupils. However, when the figures for full-time and part-time education are combined, the proportion of the German and Swiss school populations enrolled in second level-second stage education rises to over 25 per cent, a figure that is exceeded only by Austria (over 29 per cent) and the United Kingdom (nearly 32 per cent), where part-time education is equally prevalent.

In 10 of the 22 countries surveyed, those enrolled in third level education represent more than 10 to 13 per cent of the total and over 20 per cent for Canada and the United States. This contrasts with a figure of only about 5 per cent for Portugal and Turkey.

II. THE POPULATION IN EDUCATION BY LEVEL
in 1986-87 (%)



a) 1985-86
b) The second level-first stage is included in the second stage and not in the first level
c) Including part-time
d) Basic education (pre-primary and first level)
e) Not including pre-primary
f) Not including the third level

Source: Sections 1.1 to 1.5 and 3.3

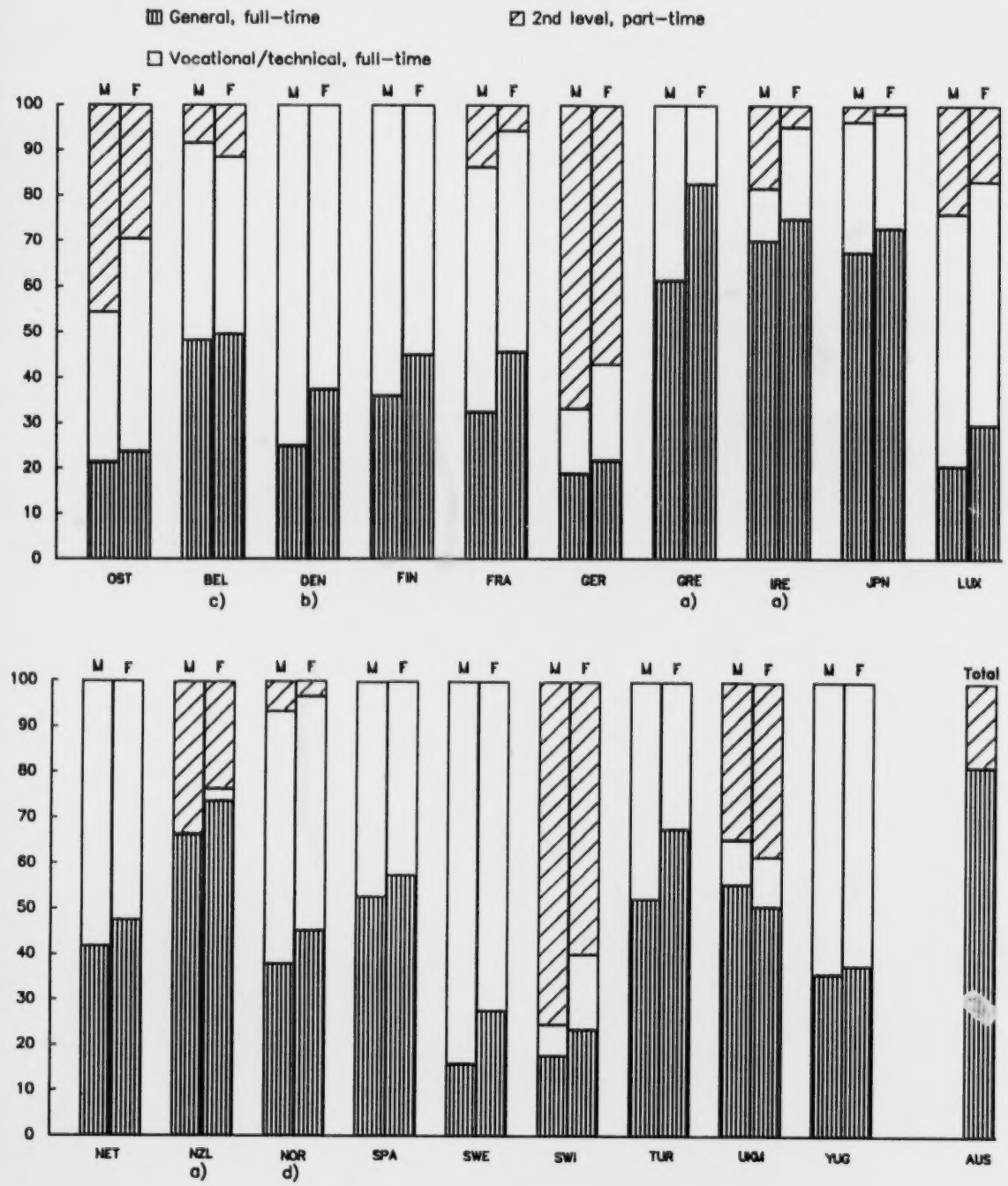
IV. ENROLMENT IN SECOND LEVEL-SECOND STAGE EDUCATION

In the majority of countries, second level-second stage education is split into general education and vocational/technical education. These two types can be further subdivided into end-of-studies education and preparation for third level studies, but the two are not differentiated here. Moreover, in some countries part-time education, mostly vocational, including apprenticeships, exists alongside full-time education. Countries such as Canada and the United States, where all pupils pursue general education, have been excluded from the chart opposite. Australia, for which only the total enrolment data are available, is shown separately.

The countries can be divided into three sets. The first set covers Australia, Belgium, Greece, Ireland, Japan, New Zealand, Spain, Turkey and the United Kingdom. In this set the largest proportion of pupils are in general education, from 49 per cent in Belgium to 73 per cent in Ireland. In the second set, Austria, Denmark, Finland, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and Yugoslavia, full-time vocational/technical education predominates with a proportion of pupils ranging from 39 per cent in Austria to 78 per cent in Sweden. In the third set, Germany and Switzerland, part-time education leads with over 60 per cent of enrolments.

In all the countries except the United Kingdom, general education has a higher proportion of girls than of boys and often much higher, from 40 to 50 per cent in Denmark, France, Luxembourg and Norway and nearly 75 per cent in Sweden. On the whole, though, the difference is less marked in countries where general education has the highest proportion of total enrolments. The picture is less clearcut in full-time vocational/technical education. Twelve countries have more boys, but girls predominate in Austria, Germany, Ireland, Norway, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. (New Zealand is not taken into account here as having little education in this category.) Note that these last six countries tend to have a substantial part-time sector. Greece has twice as many boys as girls and Turkey close to 50 per cent more. Conversely, Switzerland has proportionally two-and-a-half times as many girls as boys, Ireland has 75 per cent more, while Austria and Germany have over 40 per cent more. In the other countries the differences are less marked than for general education. In part-time education boys predominate, often heavily, except in Belgium and the United Kingdom. There are twice as many boys as girls in Japan (where part-time education is low for both sexes), two-and-a-half times as many in France, and nearly four times as many in Ireland.

III. ENROLMENT IN SECOND LEVEL-SECOND STAGE EDUCATION BY TYPE OF EDUCATION AND BY SEX in 1986-87 (%)



a) 1985-86
b) Including part-time
c) Including first stage
d) Not including apprenticeship

Sources: Sections 1.3 and 1.4.

V. ENROLMENT IN THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION

As noted in Section III above, third level enrolments as a proportion of total enrolments vary by a factor of four in the extreme cases, though in nearly half the countries studied they vary much less. But third level education is not uniform. Some students are taking short, mostly end-of-studies courses (level 5), while some are enrolled in courses leading to a full university first degree (level 6) enabling them to undertake post-graduate studies (level 7) taken by a third category of students. The distribution of students among these three levels does differ very appreciably both across countries and by sex.

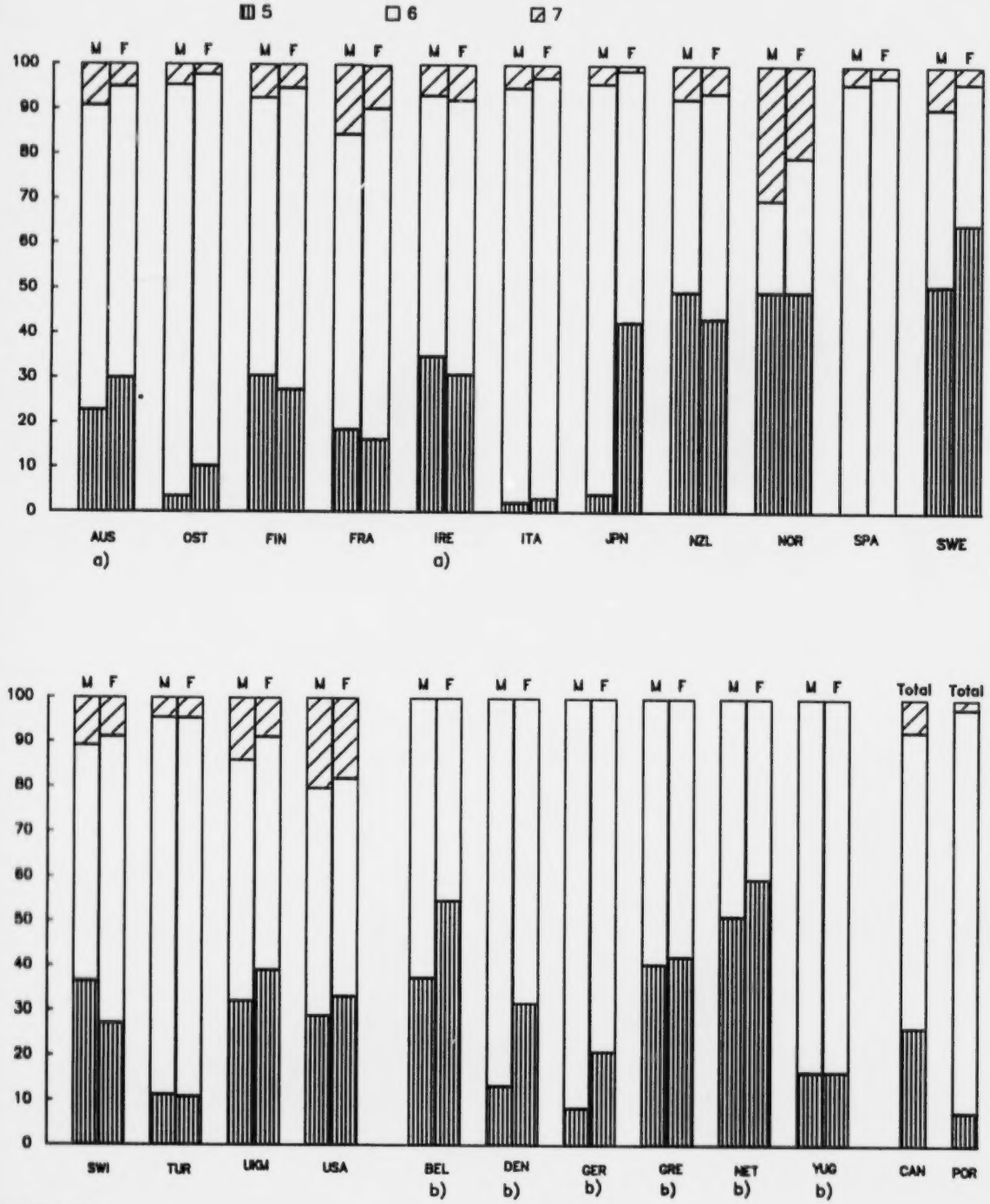
Spain and Italy have little or no level 5 education and its share is very low in Austria and Portugal. It is very surprising that these countries should have none of the higher technician training programmes, either for the service sector or for industry, which generally correspond to this level in the other countries. For certain of them at least, however, there seems to be some confusion between the kind of institution attended by students and the programme being followed, with all students enrolled in a university or university college being classified as level 6. In the Netherlands and Sweden, level 5 accounts for over 50 per cent of students and in Belgium, Greece, Ireland, New Zealand, Norway, Switzerland and the United Kingdom for one-third or more. Its share is relatively low, under 20 per cent, in Germany, France, Turkey, Yugoslavia and Japan.

The proportion of students in level 7 (where this can be distinguished from level 6) is generally low, though it is over 10 per cent in France, Switzerland and the United Kingdom and nearly 20 per cent in the United States (Norway having been excluded because the breakdown of students between level 6 and level 7 does not seem to correspond to the international classification adopted in this study, whereby the number of students in level 6 must by definition be appreciably greater than the number in level 7). The share of level 6 in total enrolments depends of course on the shares of levels 5 and 7. It is below 50 per cent only in New Zealand, the Netherlands, Sweden and, very slightly, in the United States.

At level 5, female students form the higher proportion except in Finland, France, Ireland, New Zealand and Switzerland and the difference is sometimes quite considerable: over twofold in Germany and Denmark, almost threefold in Austria and tenfold in Japan. The differences are smaller for countries with relatively more male students. In Norway, Turkey and Yugoslavia the proportion is very much the same for male and female students.

Female students also predominate at level 6 in Spain, Finland, France, Ireland, Italy, New Zealand and Switzerland, but the differences are relatively slight. They are greater in those countries with more male students, 20 to 25 per cent in Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden, nearly 40 per cent in Belgium and over 60 per cent in Japan. In Ireland and Turkey slightly more female than male students are enrolled at level 7. In the other countries the differences in favour of males are substantial, from 40 per cent in Finland to twice as many in Austria, two-and-a-half times in Sweden and three-and-a-half times in Japan.

IV. ENROLMENT IN THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION BY LEVEL AND SEX in 1986-87 (%)



a) 1985-86
b) Level 6 includes level 7

Source: Section 3.4.

VI. ENROLMENT RATES

a) Enrolment rates for the 3-6 age group

The enrolment rates for the 3-6 age group depend partly on the policies countries adopt with respect to the education of very young children, some preferring to leave their education to parents or to institutions other than schools, and also on the age at which they are accepted in nursery schools which can vary from 2 to 4 and sometimes even 5 years. The ratios depend furthermore on the age at which compulsory education begins (5 to 7 years according to country). For more information about these ages in the various countries, see the education organisation diagrams in the Annex.

In Belgium and France virtually all children in this age group are enrolled in schools, as are some 80 per cent in Germany and Spain, mostly in pre-primary education. The proportion is likewise very high in the Netherlands where 75 per cent of the 3-6 age group attend schools combining pre-primary and first level education. The figure for the United Kingdom and New Zealand is also 80 per cent; note, however, that in the United Kingdom compulsory schooling begins at 5 and that in New Zealand, although compulsory education begins at 6, most 5-year-olds are in first level education (the same applies to Australia). In both these countries the enrolment rate is much higher in first level education, than in pre-primary. The rates are lower in the Scandinavian countries and Switzerland, although in Scandinavia and in some Swiss cantons children cannot start primary school until the age of 7.

b) Enrolment rates for the 15-19 age group

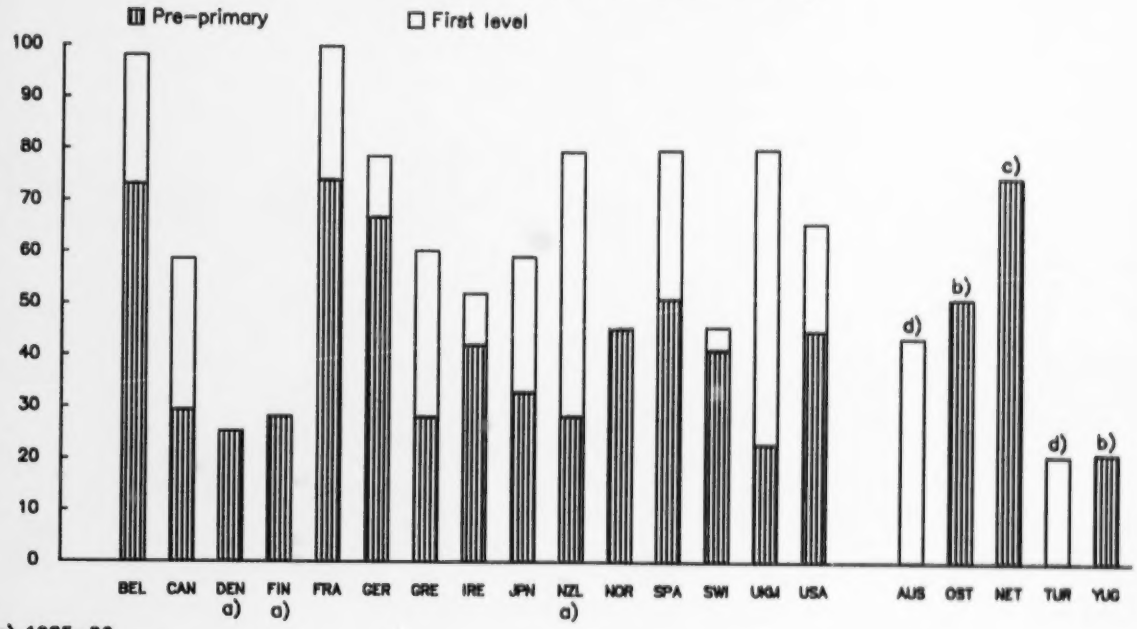
The overall enrolment rate for the 15-19 age group is influenced by three factors. One is how studies are organised, since in some countries all pupils in this age group are following full-time education while in others they choose (either voluntarily or compulsorily below a certain age) between full-time and part-time education. Second, the age at which compulsory schooling ends is not the same in all countries and itself depends on the age at which compulsory schooling begins and also its duration (for more information see the table at the beginning of the Annex) particularly affecting enrolment rates for the 15- and 16-year olds. The third factor is the age at which pupils complete second level education and are eligible to enter the third level. Enrolment rates at 17 and 18 in particular will generally be higher in countries with later entry to third level education.

Among the countries with high overall enrolment rates, 70 per cent and over, two sets can be distinguished. The first is Switzerland and Germany in which most of this age group are still in second level education, half of them or more on a part-time basis. Denmark, Finland and Norway are comparable, although part-time education plays a less important role for them. In the second set consisting of Belgium, Canada and the United States, a relatively high proportion of the age group still enrolled have already entered third level education and there is little or no second level part-time education. France and the Netherlands could to some extent be included in this second set.

In the other countries enrolment rates are lower, particularly New Zealand (slightly under 50 per cent) and the United Kingdom (55 per cent). In those countries for which no third level data are available, Australia, Spain, Japan and Turkey, comparison with enrolment rates for the same types of education (excluding third level) in other countries shows that Japan has the highest rates, while they are relatively low (under 50 per cent) in Australia and Spain, and very low (barely 30 per cent) in Turkey.

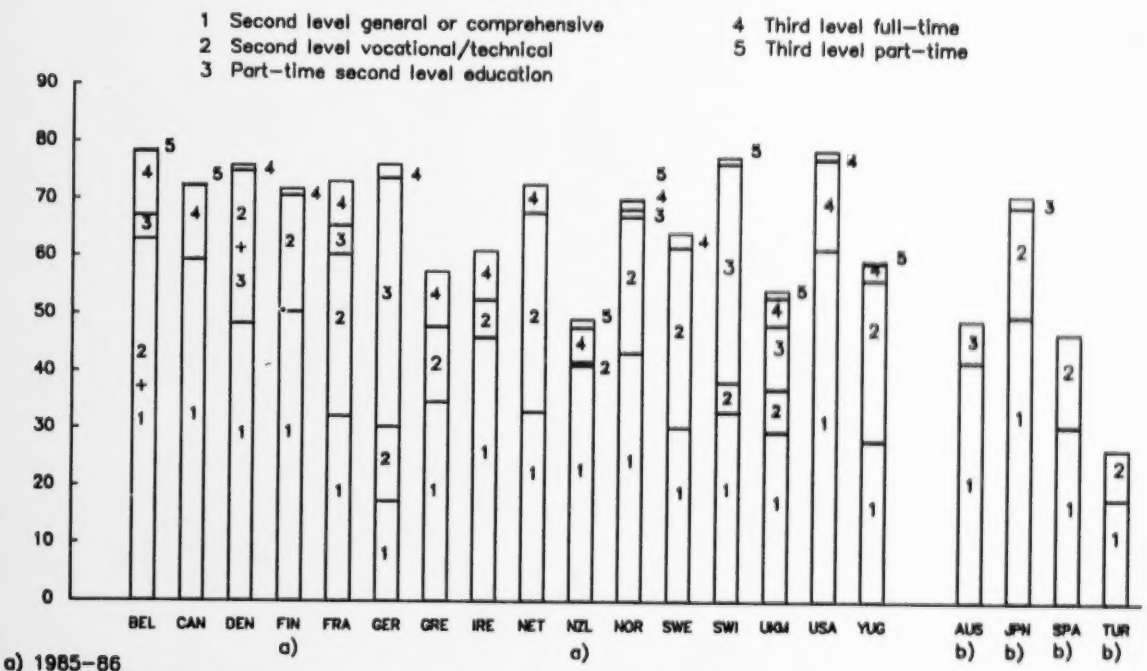
V. ENROLMENT RATES (%)

A. Age group 3-6 (pre-primary and first level)



a) 1985-86
b) Pre-primary only
c) Pre-primary and first level
d) First level only

B. Age group 15-19, by type of education



a) 1985-86
b) Not including third level

c) Enrolment rates for the 20-24 age group

When comparing enrolment rates for the 20-24 age group, structural differences in the education systems must again be borne in mind. In certain countries a relatively large proportion of those still receiving education are enrolled in second level education and mainly in vocational/technical education, on a full-time or, more often, a part-time basis. In other countries, nearly everyone has finished secondary education. On the other hand, the duration of third level education varies from one country to another and a further factor is the breakdown between short-course, non-university studies and long-course, university-level studies. In some countries at least, young people defer their entry into third level education and therefore a sometimes appreciable number of students are not taken into account here.

Over 20 per cent of the 20-24 age group is enrolled in the United States and Canada (where about 8 per cent of students cannot be broken down by age), almost all of these in third level education. Germany, Belgium, Denmark and Norway also have over 20 per cent, but in these countries one-third or more consists of young people following full-time and, especially, part-time second level education.

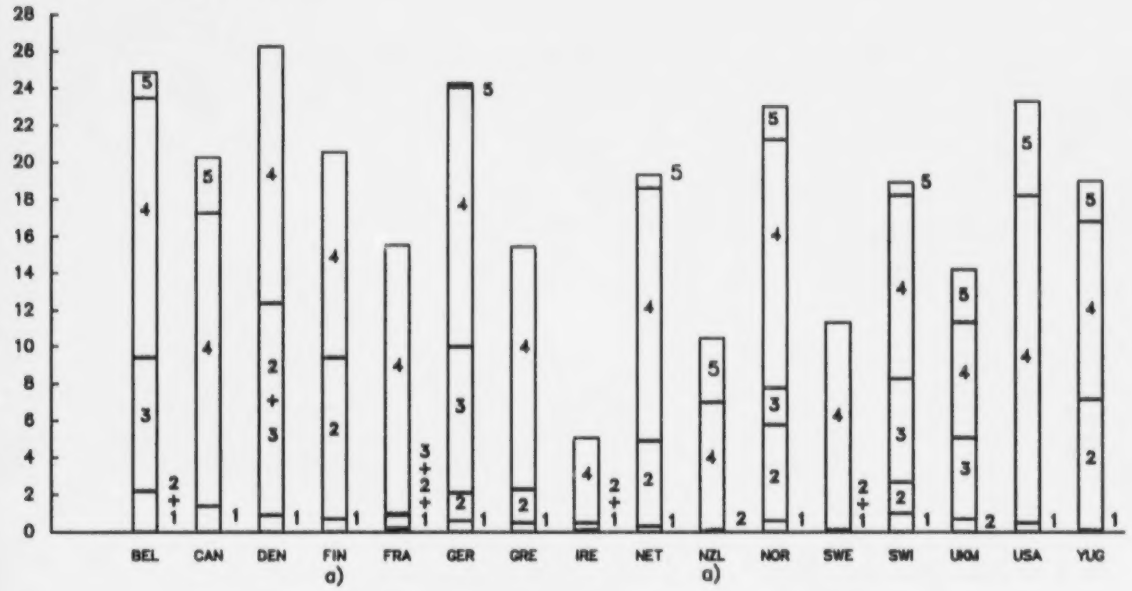
The rate is close to 20 per cent for the Netherlands and Yugoslavia, with a not inconsiderable proportion of second-level pupils. In the other countries it is much lower, especially in Sweden, New Zealand and, notably, Ireland. But it must be borne in mind that Sweden has a substantial proportion of students aged over 24 and that in New Zealand and Ireland higher education begins early and is of relatively short duration, with the result that many students in this age group have already completed it.

Looking at the enrolment rates solely for third level education, the United States and Canada, bearing in mind the above, are well in the lead with figures of over 20 per cent. Other countries have rates of between 10 and 15 per cent, except for Ireland and the United Kingdom.

V. ENROLMENT RATES (%) (cont.)

C. Age group 20-24, by type of education

1 Second level general or comprehensive
2 Second level vocational/technical
3 Part-time second level
4 Third level full-time
5 Third level part-time



a) 1985-86

Source: OECD education data bank.

VII. SECOND LEVEL-SECOND STAGE QUALIFIERS AND NEW ENTRANTS INTO THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION

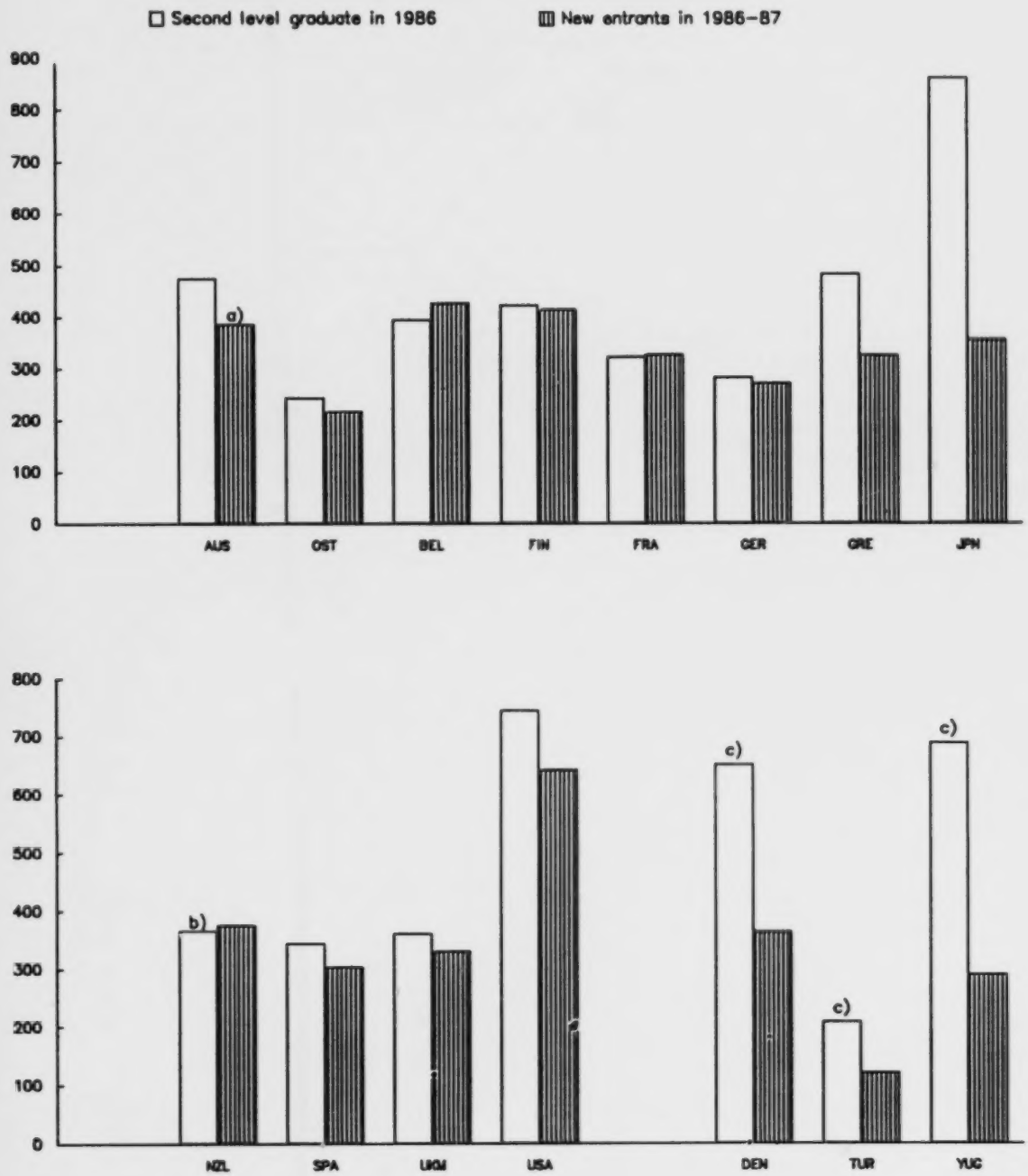
For the purpose of calculating what proportion of an age group obtains a second level-second stage qualification giving access to third level education and what proportion does actually enrol in third level education, the reference age is the same, i.e. the average of the ages at which the vast majority of pupils complete their second level education. For the secondary qualifiers this reference age gives a fairly true picture, since few pupils break off their second level studies and return to them later, while the adult proportion of those sitting and passing the secondary school-leaving examinations cannot be very large. But it gives a less accurate picture of the actual third level enrollers since, in some countries at least, a fairly significant number of those obtaining second level qualifications do not immediately embark upon third level education and are therefore older than the age reference. Another point is that third level education is opening up to increasing numbers of people in some category other than that of second level qualifiers.

The chart opposite shows that apart from Denmark, Turkey and Yugoslavia, for which the second level qualifications giving access to third level education cannot be separated out, the differences between the proportion of an age group with the second level qualification and that going on to third level education are relatively very small. This suggests that a pupil completing secondary education successfully has a considerable chance of entering third level education. The only exceptions are Japan, where the ratio between the two proportions is 40 per cent, and Greece 68 per cent. In Belgium and France the proportion is higher for new entrants than for secondary leaving certificate holders. This may be attributable to the population and to the secondary certificates taken into account, or it may be that categories of people other than those holding the certificates also have access to the third level.

However, countries do differ widely both in the proportion of their age groups obtaining a secondary certificate giving access to third level education and in the proportion that actually enters third level education. The proportion obtaining such certificates ranges from 75 per cent in the United States and over 85 per cent in Japan to 21 per cent in Turkey and slightly under 25 per cent in Austria. So Japan has over four times as many as Turkey and three-and-a-half times as many as Austria. For the proportion entering third level education, the United States leads with close to two-thirds of the age group, as against 12 per cent in Turkey and 22 per cent in Austria, i.e. ratios of 5 to 1 and 3 to 1.

Differences between the other countries range from 1 to 1.7 for secondary certificate holders and slightly under 1 to 1.5 for new entrants.

VI. COMPARISON BETWEEN THE PROPORTION OF AN AGE GROUP OBTAINING A SECOND LEVEL-SECOND STAGE QUALIFICATION ALLOWING ACCESS TO THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION AND THE PROPORTION ACTUALLY ENROLLING (‰)



a) 1985–86
b) 1985
c) Including diplomas not giving access to third level

Source: Sections 5.3 and 3.2.

VIII. PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION IN RELATION TO GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT

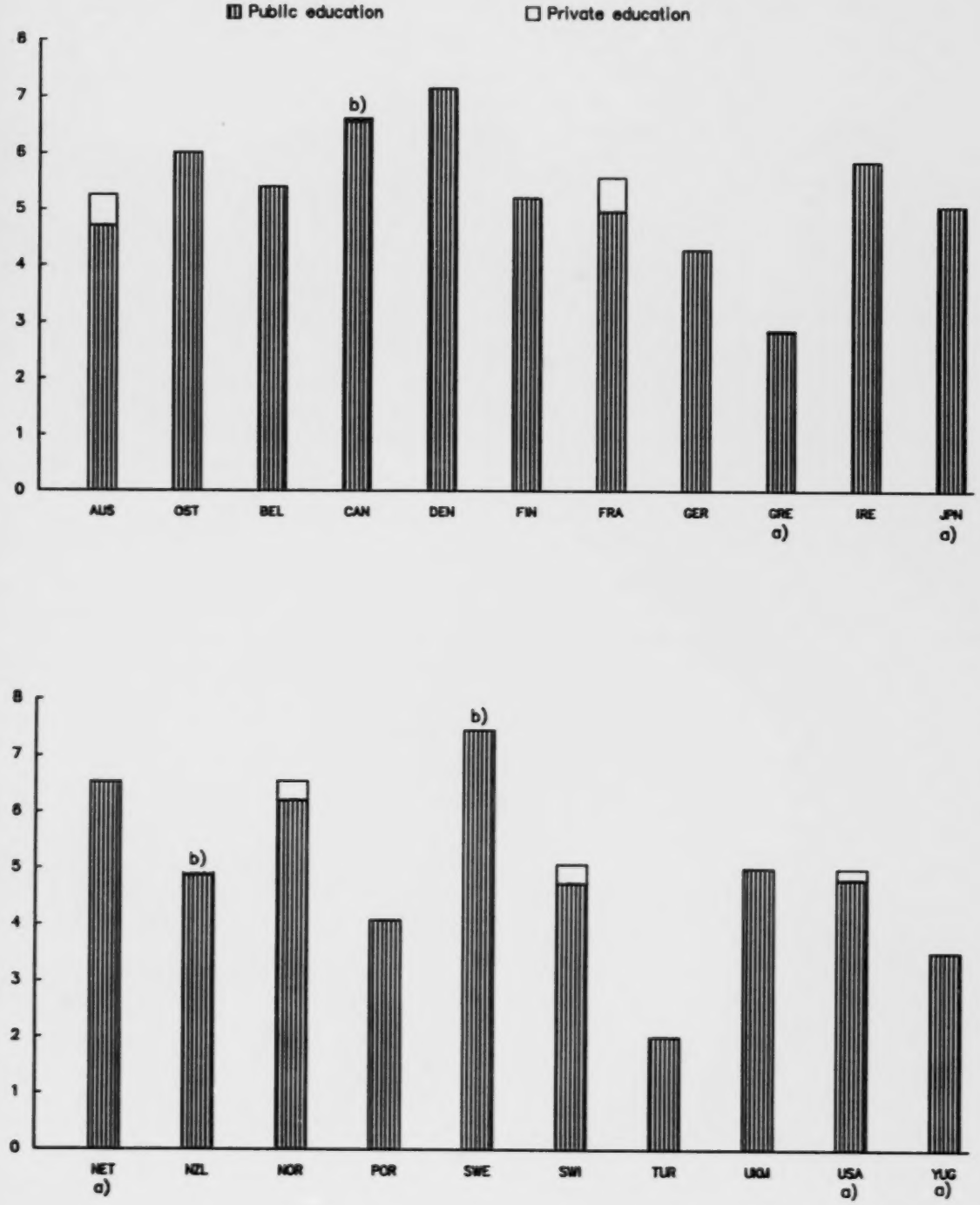
The percentage of Gross Domestic Product that a country can devote to public expenditure on education depends on several factors, particularly economic growth and therefore the relative size of its GDP, the demographic structure on which the economically active proportion of the population depends, the percentage of GDP devoted to overall public expenditure and the way in which this is shared out among the different items, the share of private non-subsidised education, etc.

The percentage ranges from about 5 to 6 per cent in eleven of the twenty-one countries for which data are available. It is over 6.5 per cent in Canada, the Netherlands and Norway, and 7 per cent in Denmark and Sweden. By contrast, it is relatively low, under 4.5 per cent, in Germany and Portugal, and still lower in Yugoslavia, 3.5 per cent, and Greece and Turkey, under 3 per cent.

To form an impression of countries' total expenditure on education, private expenditure would have to be added in. This represents between 1 and 1.8 per cent of GDP in France, Japan and the United States (see Table, Section 6.1 of Part B). However, data for private expenditure are unavailable or incomplete in certain countries and it was therefore thought preferable to omit them from the chart opposite.

Not all public expenditure on education goes to public education. A certain proportion is used to subsidise private education. This proportion is on the whole quite low, 1 per cent or under of total public expenditure on education, but does amount to 4 per cent in the United States, 7 per cent in Switzerland, 10 per cent in Australia and nearly 12 per cent in France. For Belgium and the Netherlands private education, like public education, is entirely publicly-funded, so the distinction between expenditure on public education and subsidised private education has not been retained and the total expenditure has been taken into account.

VII. PERCENTAGE OF GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT DEVOTED TO PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION



a) 1985
b) Low figure

Sources: Expenditure on education – Section 6.1.
GDP – National accounts, OECD.

IX. PUBLIC EXPENDITURE BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION

The breakdown of public expenditure on public education* by level (omitting the category "other types of education" since it differs too widely from country to country) depends partly on the relative importance that a country assigns to a particular level and, secondly, on the distribution of the school population, itself considerably influenced by the country's population structure and by the duration of education at each level. Expenditure is distributed according to each country's own classification and not to the international classification used for pupils/students. To facilitate comparison, countries have been grouped together in the chart opposite according to the different classifications they adopt.

In the first set of countries for which separate data are available for each level of education, the pre-primary share of expenditure is high in Ireland and France, at 10 to 12 per cent, still fairly high in Greece and Austria, and very low, at 1 to 3 per cent, in the other countries. The first level share is low in Germany and Austria, where first level education only lasts four years, and compared with the other countries in the United Kingdom and France in particular, but it is relatively high in Japan. The pre-primary and first level share in the second set of countries can be compared with the pre-primary/first level total for those levels in the first set of countries. Belgium and the Netherlands come fairly low, just above Germany and Austria, with Portugal in the lead followed by the United States, though United States elementary studies do last eight years. The share of expenditure on overall second level education is comparable for countries in the first and second sets, exceeding 50 per cent in Germany and Austria, but it is the lowest in the United States, due to the longer first level education which affects the duration of second level education. The share is between 40 and 50 per cent in the other countries, apart from the Netherlands and Portugal where it is lower.

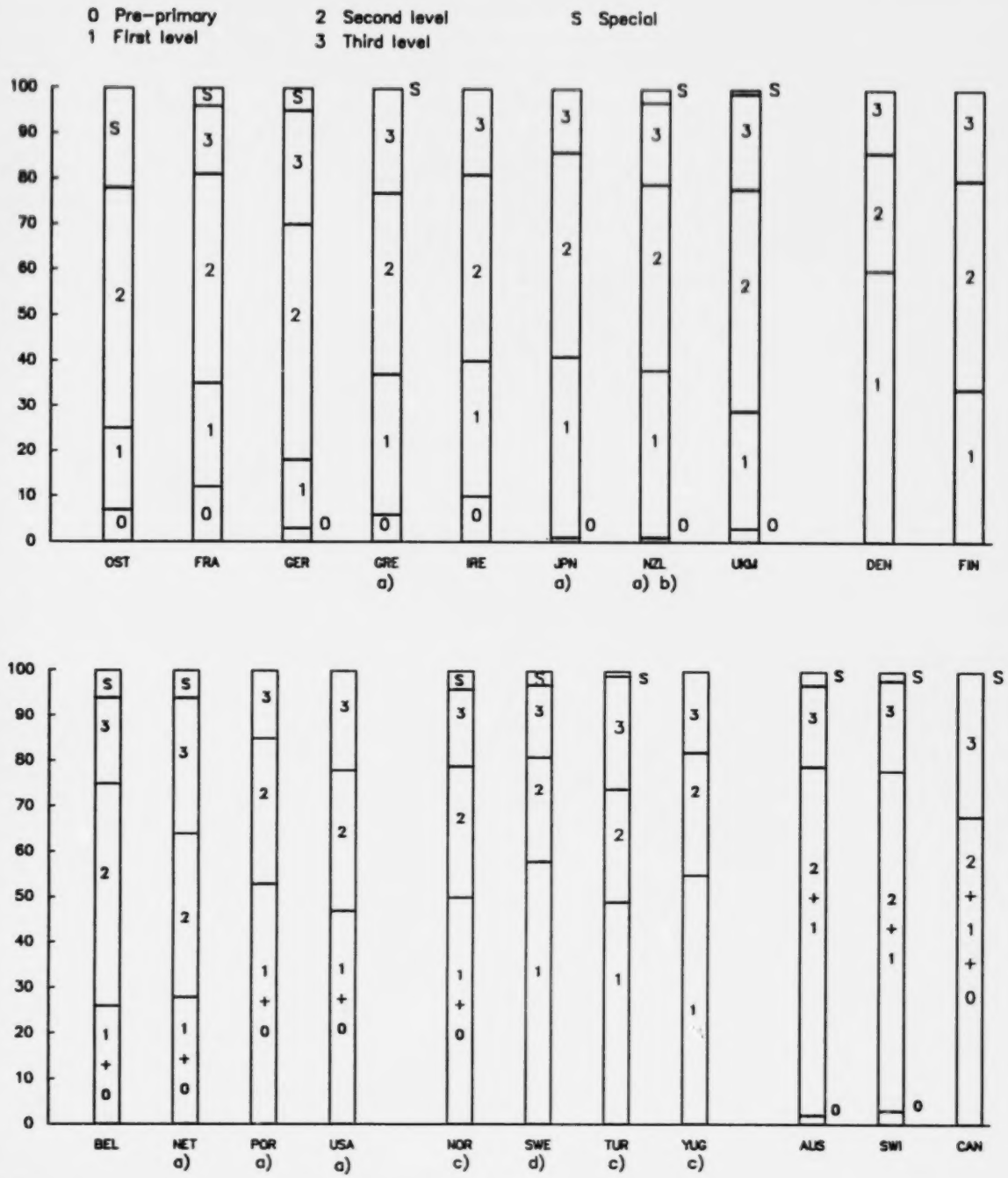
In the third set of countries, for which data relate both to basic education (covering both first level and second level-first stage) and to second level-second stage, Sweden and Yugoslavia spend relatively more than Norway or Turkey on basic education, while Norway and Yugoslavia spend more than Sweden and Turkey on the second level-second stage.

The share of expenditure on special education is generally very low, but does amount to or exceeds 5 per cent in Germany, Belgium and the Netherlands.

Expenditure on third level education can be separated out in all the countries. It represents only 14 per cent of the total in Denmark and Japan (in the latter three-quarters of the students attend private institutions), 15 to 20 per cent in the other countries apart from Austria, Germany, Greece, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States, where it amounts to between 20 and 25 per cent, and Canada and the Netherlands, where it amounts to 30 per cent or more.

* For Belgium and the Netherlands, this includes expenditure on both public and private education, the latter being 100 per cent subsidised, and the breakdown between the public and private sectors differs from one level of education to another.

VIII. PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC EDUCATION BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION (%)



a) 1985
b) The third level refers to universities only
c) The first level includes the second level–first stage
d) Current expenditure only; the first level includes the second level–first stage

Sources: OECD education data bank.

X. PUBLIC EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL/STUDENT

The comments in the previous section concerning the breakdown of public expenditure* among the different levels of education also apply here. Some countries, i.e. Australia, Austria, Finland, France, Greece, Ireland, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, and the United States, have supplied pupil/student enrolment data corresponding to expenditures. Data for the remaining countries have been extracted from other questionnaire tables and regrouped so as to correspond to the expenditure breakdown, apart from student numbers in public third level education, for which this has only been possible for Denmark, Italy, Japan, Norway, New Zealand, Spain, Sweden and Turkey. Comparisons with and between the other countries are accordingly somewhat distorted, since the share of private third level education can vary from one country to another, but it is worth pointing out that, in contrast to previous years, it has been possible to separate the data out for the United States and Japan, where the private share is particularly high. However, except in the United Kingdom, the data relate to the aggregate number of both full-time and part-time pupils and students, although the number of part-time pupils and students varies considerably across countries and across levels.

Expenditure per pre-primary pupil as a proportion of per capita GDP varies quite substantially from one country to another. It is particularly high in Austria and in the United Kingdom and only slightly less so in Ireland, France and Japan. It is relatively low (8 per cent) in Switzerland.

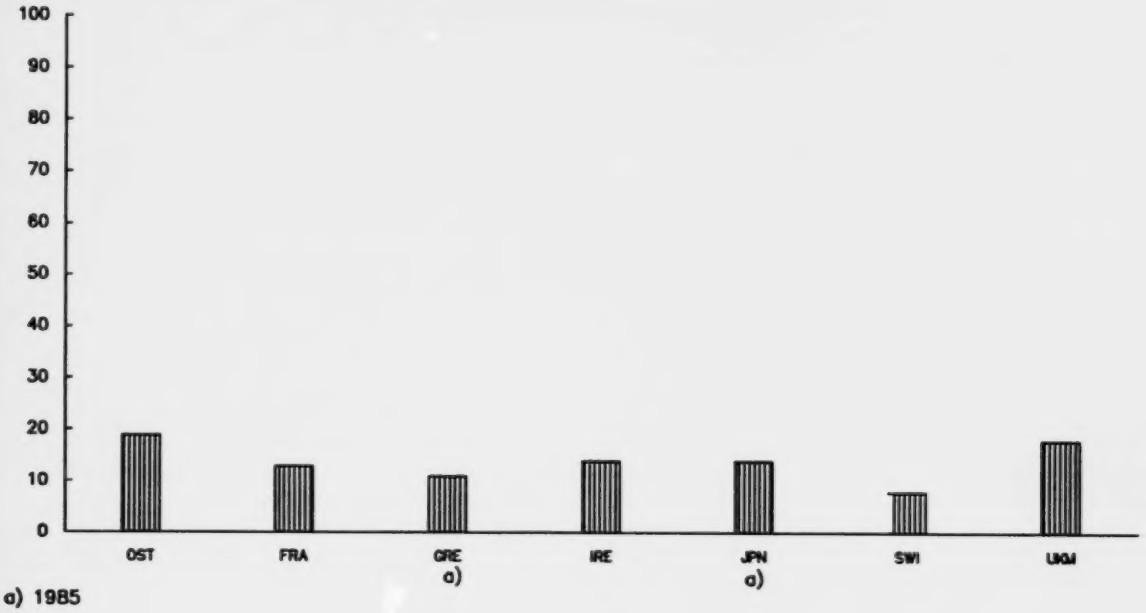
For those countries where expenditure on the first level can be distinguished, the figure ranges from 15 to 20 per cent except in Austria, Finland and especially Denmark where it is higher, and in Greece where it is only 10 per cent. In countries where expenditure per pupil covers both pre-primary and first level, as a proportion of per capita GDP, Belgium's figure barely matches the pre-primary figure in most of those countries where that can be separated out, while in the Netherlands, Portugal and the United States it is comparable with the first level figure. In Norway, Sweden and Yugoslavia, where first level expenditure includes second level-first stage expenditure, Norway's share is comparable with that of Austria and Finland for first level alone, Sweden's is appreciably higher and Yugoslavia's is relatively low.

In Turkey, for which data relate to pre-primary, first level and second level-first stage combined, expenditures per pupil are extremely low. For Australia, Switzerland and Canada they are too highly aggregated, covering first and second levels in Australia and Switzerland and taking in pre-primary in Canada, for comparison with other country data.

* For Belgium and the Netherlands, this includes expenditure on both public and private education, the latter being 100 per cent subsidised, and the breakdown between the public and private sectors differs from one level of education to another.

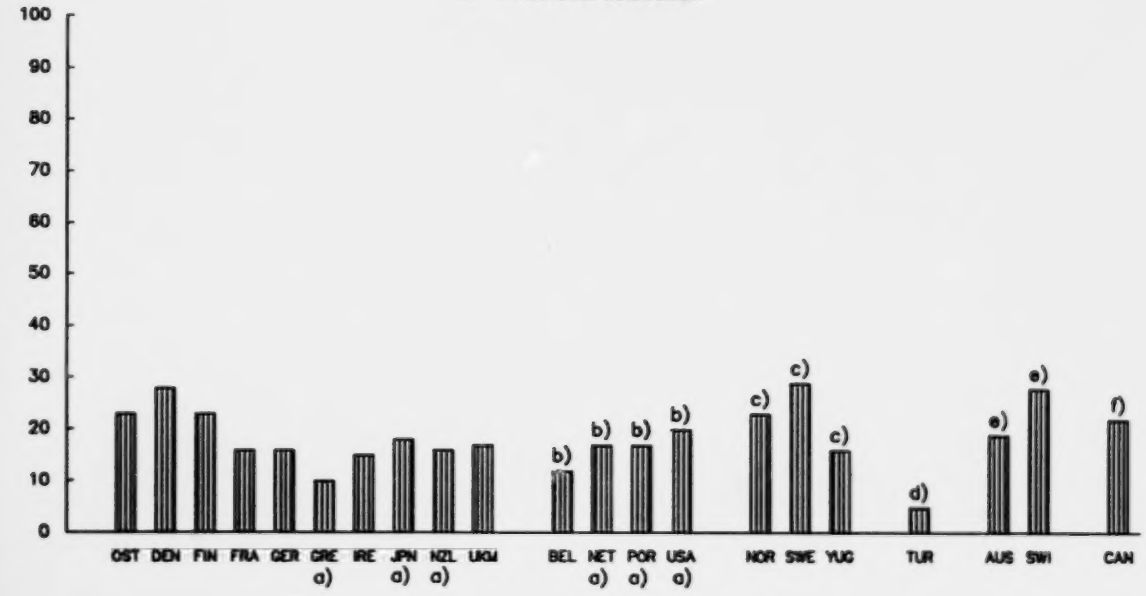
IX. PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC EDUCATION PER PUPIL/STUDENT AS A PERCENTAGE OF PER CAPITA GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT

A. Pre-primary education



a) 1985

B. First level education



a) 1985
b) Including pre-primary
c) Including second level-first stage
d) Including pre-primary and second level-first stage
e) Including second level
f) Including pre-primary and second level

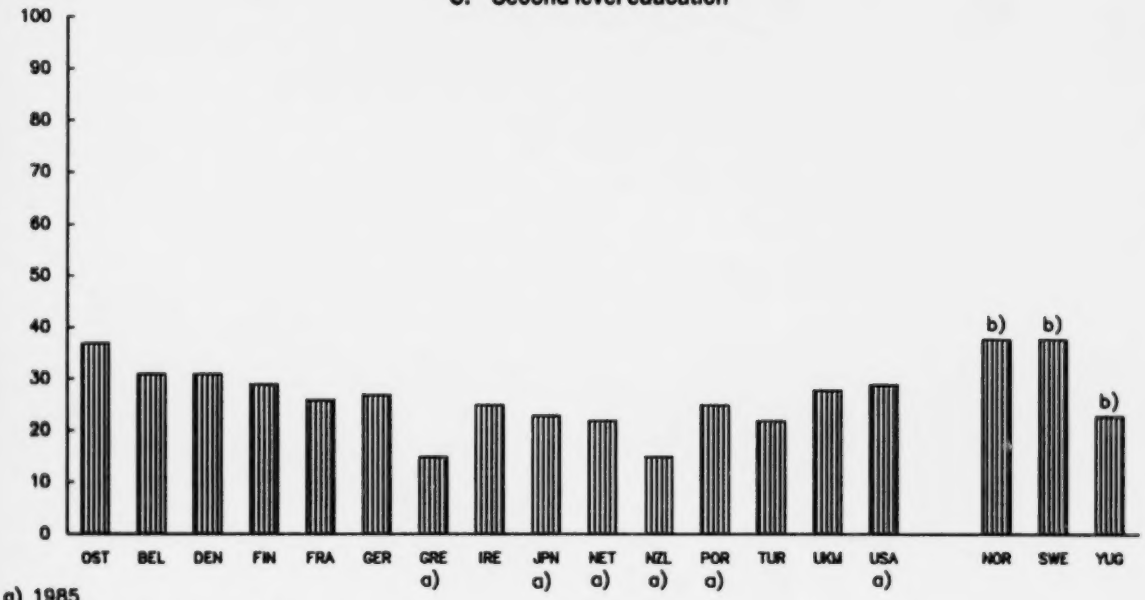
For countries for which the data cover the full second level, expenditures per pupil amounts to 15 per cent of per capita GDP in Greece and New Zealand, between 20 and 30 per cent in the other countries apart from Belgium, Denmark and particularly Austria where it exceeds 30 per cent. In the countries for which the data apply only to second level-second stage, expenditures are higher at 38 per cent in Norway and Sweden, but relatively low, at 22 and 23 per cent, in Turkey and Yugoslavia.

At the third level the differences are particularly striking. Expenditure per student represents only 30 per cent of per capita GDP in France and between 35 and 41 per cent in Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece, Norway, Sweden, the United States and Yugoslavia, while reaching or exceeding 50 per cent in Austria and Switzerland, and also in Australia and New Zealand for university education, 60 per cent in Portugal and Turkey (university), 70 per cent in Ireland, 80 per cent in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom and nearly 120 per cent in Japan.

Comparing expenditure per pupil/student at each level of education within individual countries, the differences prove to be very big. Expenditure is slightly higher for a pre-primary pupil than for a first level pupil in Greece and the United Kingdom, but nearly 25 per cent lower in Japan. In all the countries, apart from New Zealand, expenditure is higher in second level than in first level with differences of 10 points or more in Austria, France, Germany, Ireland and the United Kingdom, but only 5 points in Greece and Japan and 3 points in Denmark. Expenditures are on the whole very much higher for third level than for second, except in Belgium, Denmark, France and Sweden where they are less than 8 points apart. The extreme cases are Denmark and Turkey. In Denmark per capita GDP expenditures per student are barely one-and-a-half times as high as for a first level pupil, but twelve times as high in Turkey.

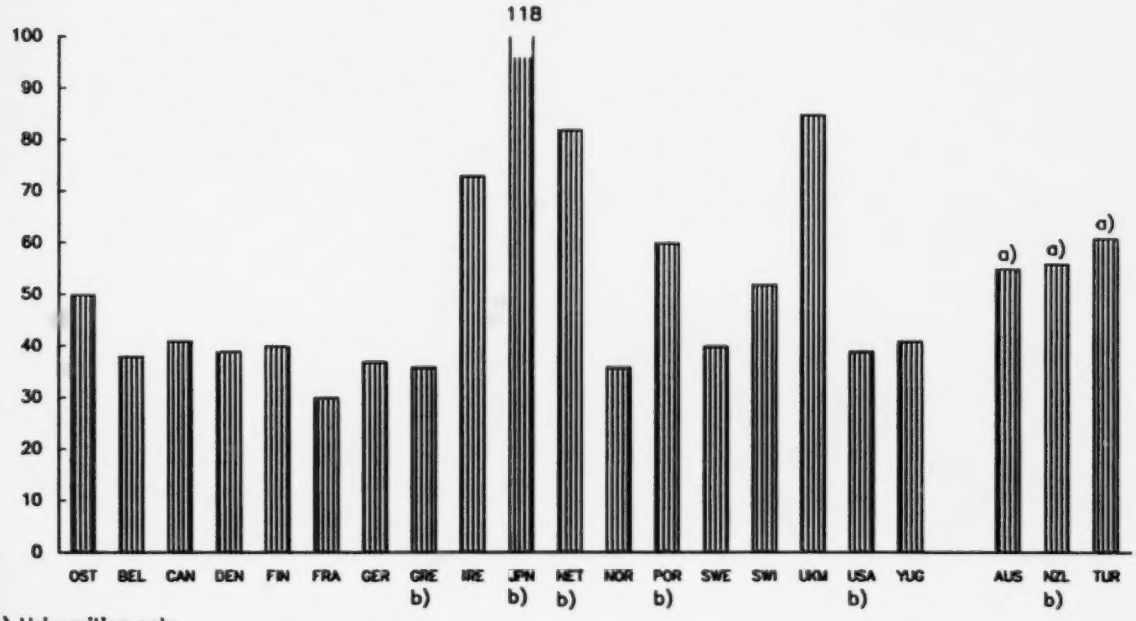
IX. PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC EDUCATION PER PUPIL/STUDENT AS A PERCENTAGE OF PER CAPITA GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT (cont.)

C. Second level education



a) 1985
b) Second level–second stage

D. Third level education



a) Universities only
b) 1985

Sources: Public expenditure and enrolment – OECD education data bank.
GDP – National accounts OECD.
Population – OECD demographic data bank.

FIGURES ON WHICH THE CHARTS ARE BASED

Chart I. POPULATION AGED 3 TO 24 AND POPULATION IN EDUCATION AS PERCENTAGES OF THE TOTAL POPULATION, in 1986-87

	Total population	Population in education		
		Full-time	Part-time	Total
Australia[a,b]	35.8	20.3	2.0	22.3
Austria	31.4	18.0	2.3	20.3
Belgium	30.4	22.6	0.9	23.5
Canada	34.0	22.7	1.8	24.5
Denmark	30.2	20.6		20.6
Finland	30.0	18.5	–	18.5
France	32.3	24.6	1.0	25.6
Germany	27.3	17.4	3.2	20.6
Greece[b]	32.2	20.6	–	20.6
Ireland[b]	41.1	27.4	..	27.4
Japan	31.9	21.6	0.4	22.0
Netherlands	32.3	22.3	0.6	22.9
New Zealand[b]	38.5	24.1	3.0	27.1
Norway	31.6	21.5	1.4	22.9
Portugal[b]	34.1	19.0	–	19.0
Spain	35.6	26.3	..	26.3
Sweden[a]	28.5	16.8	–	16.8
Switzerland[b]	29.1	16.1	3.6	19.7
Turkey	47.9	20.1	–	20.1
United Kingdom	31.4	20.9	3.4	24.3
United States	32.6	22.7	2.2	24.9
Yugoslavia	34.7	19.1	0.4	19.5

a) Excluding pre-primary.
b) 1985-86.

Chart II. BREAKDOWN OF TOTAL ENROLMENT BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, in 1986-87 (%)

	Pre-primary	1st level & 2nd level 1st stage	2nd level 2nd stage	Special	2nd level part-time	3rd level
Australia[a]	..	72.1	16.3	0.7	..	11.0
Austria	12.4	46.7	17.9	0.0	11.2	11.7
Belgium	16.4	31.3[b]	35.0[b]	2.6	3.9	10.9
Canada	7.0	54.1	18.8	..	–	20.1
Denmark	5.3	62.0	21.5[c]	..	–	11.2
Finland	9.3	54.0	24.1	..	..	12.6
France	18.3	55.0	15.0	0.7	1.6	9.3
Germany	13.4	47.2	9.4	2.1	15.4	12.5
Greece[a]	7.8	64.8	18.2	0.3	–	8.9
Ireland[a]	15.0	64.2	12.8	0.9	..	7.1
Japan	7.5	62.7	19.8	0.4	0.5	9.0
Luxembourg	29.6	48.2	17.6	..	4.6	..
Netherlands	..	69.4[d]	15.6	3.1	–	11.9
New Zealand[a]	6.8	64.6	12.7	..	5.1	10.7
Norway	10.9	54.2	19.6	1.0	3.3	10.9
Portugal[a]	5.4	79.2	10.4	..	–	5.0
Spain	10.6	56.6	22.7	0.4	–	9.7
Sweden	..	66.2	20.0	0.9	–	13.0
Switzerland	9.6	54.1	7.9	2.5	17.1	8.6[a]
Turkey	1.0	83.2	10.9	0.1	–	4.8
United Kingdom	5.5	52.4	20.6	1.0	11.8	8.6
United States	10.9	51.2	17.3	..	–	20.7
Yugoslavia	8.4	62.5	20.7	0.6	–	7.7

a) 1985-86.
b) Second level-first stage is included in second level-second stage and not in first level.
c) Including part-time education.
d) Basic education (pre-primary and first level).

Chart III. ENROLMENT IN SECOND LEVEL-SECOND STAGE EDUCATION BY TYPE OF EDUCATION AND BY SEX, in 1986-87 (%)

	Full-time				Part-time	
	General		Voc/technical			
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Australia	71.2	95.3	–	–	28.8	4.7
Austria	21.4	23.8	33.0	46.7	45.7	29.5
Belgium [a]	48.3	49.6	43.3	38.9	8.4	11.6
Denmark	25.0	37.4	75.0 [b]	62.6 [b]	..	..
Finland	36.1	45.1	63.9	54.9	–	–
France	32.5	45.8	53.8	48.5	13.7	5.7
Germany	18.9	21.7	14.3	21.3	66.8	56.9
Greece [c]	61.5	82.7	38.5	17.3	–	–
Ireland [c]	70.1	75.0	11.6	20.2	18.3	4.8
Japan	67.6	73.0	28.8	25.3	3.5	1.8
Luxembourg	20.6	29.7	55.5	53.6	23.9	16.7
Netherlands	41.9	47.6	58.1	52.4	–	–
New Zealand [c]	66.3	73.7	0.5	2.6	33.1	23.6
Norway	38.0	45.5	55.4	51.3	6.6 [d]	3.2 [d]
Spain	52.8	57.6	47.1	42.4	–	–
Sweden	15.9	27.7	84.1	72.3	–	–
Switzerland	17.8	23.6	6.9	16.6	75.3	59.8
Turkey	52.3	67.8	47.7	32.2	–	–
United Kingdom	55.6	50.7	9.9	11.0	34.5	38.2
Yugoslavia	35.9	37.7	64.1	62.3	–	–

a) Including second level-first stage.
b) Including part-time education.
c) 1985-86.
d) Excluding apprenticeship.

Chart IV. ENROLMENT IN THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION BY LEVEL AND BY SEX, in 1986-87 (%)

	Level 5		Level 6		Level 7	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Australia [a]	22.8	30.0	68.0	65.0	9.2	5.0
Austria	3.6	10.2	91.8	87.5	4.6	2.3
Belgium	37.3	54.7	62.7	45.3	included in 6	
Canada	26.3		66.3		7.5	
Denmark	13.3	31.6	86.7	68.4	included in 6	
Finland [b]	30.5	27.4	62.1	67.4	7.4	5.2
France	18.5	16.2	66.0	74.1	15.5	9.6
Germany	8.3	20.9	91.7	79.1	included in 6	
Greece	40.5	42.2	59.5	57.7	included in 6	
Ireland [c]	34.9	30.8	58.3	61.3	6.8	7.9
Italy	2.2	3.1	92.7	94.0	5.1	2.9
Japan	4.1	42.6	91.8	56.2	4.1	1.1
Netherlands	51.3	59.6	48.7	40.3	included in 6	
New Zealand	49.4	43.4	43.1	50.4	7.5	6.2
Norway	49.4	49.4	20.5	30.1	30.1	20.5
Portugal [d]	7.5		90.3		2.1	
Spain	0.0	0.0	96.0	97.6	4.0	2.4
Sweden	50.9	64.6	39.1	31.7	9.4	3.7
Switzerland [d]	36.5	27.1	52.7	64.1	10.7	8.8
United Kingdom	32.1	39.0	53.8	52.2	14.1	8.8
United States	28.8	33.1	50.9	48.8	20.3	18.1
Turkey	11.2	10.8	84.2	84.5	4.6	4.7
Yugoslavia	16.4	16.5	83.6	83.5	included in 6	

a) 1985-86. Excluding TAFE (Technical and Further Education).
b) Full-time only.
c) 1985-86. Full-time only.
d) 1985-86.

Chart V B. ENROLMENT RATES FOR THE 15-19 YEAR AGE GROUP, in 1986-87 (%)

	Second level				Third level		Grand total
	General	Vocational/ Technical	Part-time	Total	Full-time	Part-time	
Australia	42.0	–	7.2	49.3	..	..	..
Belgium	—— 63.0 ——		4.2	67.2	11.2	0.2	78.6
Canada	59.4	–	–	59.4	13.0	0.3	72.7
Denmark	48.4	—— 26.6 ——		75.0	1.0	–	76.0
Finland	50.4[a]	20.4[a]	–	70.8[a]	1.2	..	72.0
France	32.2	28.2	5.1	66.5	7.8	–	73.4
Germany	17.3	13.1	43.5	73.8	2.4	0.0	76.2
Greece	34.8	13.1	–	47.9	9.6	–	61.1
Ireland	46.1	6.5	..	52.6	8.5	..	61.1
Japan	49.9	19.2	1.9	71.0	..	..	..
Netherlands	33.0	34.8	–	67.8	5.0	0.0	72.8
New Zealand	41.2[a]	0.7[a]	–	41.9[a]	5.9	1.5	49.3
Norway	43.4	23.8	1.3	68.8	5.0	0.0	72.8
Spain	0.8	16.3	–	47.1	..	..	..
Sweden	30.4	31.3	–	61.7	2.7	–	64.5
Switzerland	33.1	5.2	38.2	76.5	1.1[a]	0.0[a]	77.6
Turkey	18.1	8.8	..	29.9	..	..	..
United Kingdom	29.6	7.5	11.2	48.3	4.8	1.3	54.3
United States	61.4	–	–	61.4	15.9	1.5	78.8
Yugoslavia	28.1	28.0	–	56.1	3.0	0.5	59.6

a) 1985-86.

Chart V C. ENROLMENT RATE FOR THE 20-24 YEAR AGE GROUP, in 1986-87 (%)

	Second level				Third level		Grand total
	General	Vocational/ technical	Part-time	Total	Full-time	Part-time	
Australia	..	..	..	..	12.2	–	..
Belgium	—— 2.2 ——		7.2	9.4	14.1	1.4	24.9
Canada	1.4	–	–	1.4	15.9	3.0	20.3
Denmark	0.9	—— 11.5 ——		12.4	13.9	–	26.4
Finland	0.7[a]	8.7[a]	–	9.4[a]	11.2	..	20.6
France	0.2	0.7	0.1	1.1	14.6	–	15.7
Germany	0.6	1.5	7.9	10.0	14.1	0.2	24.3
Greece	0.5	1.8	–	2.3	13.2	–	15.5
Ireland	0.1	0.4	..	0.5	4.6	..	5.1
Netherlands	0.3	4.6	–	4.9	13.8	0.7	19.4
New Zealand	–	0.1[a]	–	0.1[a]	6.9	3.5	10.5
Norway	0.6	5.2	2.0	7.8	13.5	1.8	23.1
Sweden	0.0	0.1	–	0.1	11.3	–	11.4
Switzerland	1.0	1.7	5.6	8.3	10.0[a]	0.7[a]	19.0
United Kingdom	–	0.7	4.4	5.1	6.3	2.9	14.3
United States	0.5	–	–	0.5	17.8	5.1	23.5
Yugoslavia	0.1	7.1	–	7.2	9.7	2.2	19.1

a) 1985-86.

Chart VIII. PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC EDUCATION BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, in 1986-87 (%)

	Pre-primary	First level	Second level	Third level	Special
Australia	2	—— 77 ——		18	3
Austria	7	18	53	22	1
Belgium	—— 26 ——		49	19	6
Canada	..	68[a]	..	32	0
Denmark	..	60	26	14	..
Finland	..	34	46	20	..
France	12	23	46	15	4
Germany	3	15	52	25	5
Greece[b]	6	31	40	23	1
Ireland	10	30	41	19	..
Japan[b]	1	40	45	14	0
Netherlands[b]	—— 28 ——		36	30	6
New Zealand[b]	1	37	41	18	3
Norway	..	50[c]	29[d]	17	4
Portugal[b]	..	53	32	15	0
Sweden	..	58[c]	23[d]	16	3
Switzerland	3	—— 75 ——		20	2
Turkey	..	49[e]	25[d]	25	1
United Kingdom	3	26	49	21	1
United States[b]	—— 46 ——		31	22	..
Yugoslavia	..	56[c]	27[d]	18	..

a) Pre-primary, first and second levels.
b) 1985.
c) Including second level-first stage.
d) Second level-second stage only.
e) Including pre-primary and second level-first stage.

Chart IX. PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC EDUCATION PER PUPIL/STUDENT AS A PERCENTAGE OF PER CAPITA GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT, in 1986

	Pre-primary	First level	Second level	Third level
Australia	..	—— 19 ——		55
Austria	19	23	37	50
Belgium	—— 12 ——		31	38
Canada	..	22[a]	..	41
Denmark	..	28	31	39
Finland	..	23	29	40
France	13	16	26	30
Germany	..	16	27	37
Greece[b]	11	10	15	36
Ireland	14	15	25	73
Japan[b]	14	18	23	118
Netherlands[b]	—— 17 ——		22	82
New Zealand[b]	..	16	15	56
Norway	..	23[c]	38[d]	36
Portugal[b]	—— 17 ——		25	60
Sweden	..	29[c]	38[d]	40
Switzerland	8	—— 28 ——		52
Turkey	..	5[e]	22[d]	61
United Kingdom	18	17	28	85
United States[b]	—— 20 ——		29	39
Yugoslavia	..	16[c]	23[d]	41

a) Pre-primary, first and second levels.
b) 1985.
c) Including second level-first stage.
d) Second level-second stage only.
e) Including pre-primary and second level-first stage.

B. DETAILED DATA

1. PUPILS

Comments

The statistics opposite apply only to children receiving pre-primary education within the school system as such – the only data covered by the questionnaires on which this study is based. They exclude, therefore, all educational or other activities provided for young children outside this system.

The number of children receiving pre-primary education is influenced by three factors, apart, of course, from the number of available places. First, there is the age at which it is possible to enter the system, which varies from country to country from two to six years old. Second, there is the age at which compulsory education begins, which also varies from five to seven years according to country. (Further details on these ages are given in the national education system diagrams in the Annex). Third, by parental decisions about when their children start school, and this is reflected in the enrolment rate (see Section 4.1). While pre-primary enrolment rates exceed 90 per cent by the age three in France and Belgium (and are over 25 per cent at age two), they rise regularly and somewhat gradually with the age of the children in other countries.

The breakdown by sex of pre-primary pupils is approximately the same as for the division in the population of children of this age: around 49 per cent girls and 51 per cent boys.

Between 1985-86 and 1986-87, a downward trend in enrolment continued and was more pronounced in Belgium and Spain and rather less pronounced in Denmark, Japan and the Netherlands than between 1984-85 and 1985-86. In France, the upward trend was reversed and the opposite occurred in the United Kingdom over these years. An upward trend continued in the other reference countries; it accelerated in Norway, Switzerland and, most especially, Germany while slowing down in Austria, the United States and Yugoslavia. Growth in enrolments remained much the same in Canada.

The private sector's share varies considerably by country. It is virtually non-existent in Germany and New Zealand, relatively low – less than 10 per cent – in seven other countries, but it caters for over a third of enrolments in Norway, Spain, and the United States and stands as high as 75 per cent in Japan. Belgium, which counts over 50 per cent of enrolments in the private sector, is (like the Netherlands which is not covered here) a special case, since the private sector is funded entirely from public sources.

Classifications differing from the general definitions given at the end of Chapter 1.

Since regular attendance at this level is not compulsory, it is difficult to differentiate between part-time and full-time pupils. Therefore, the figures refer to the total number of pupils.

As pre-primary and first level education have been fully integrated in the Netherlands, the assumption made here is that pupils aged three to five are receiving an education comparable to the pre-primary level in other countries.

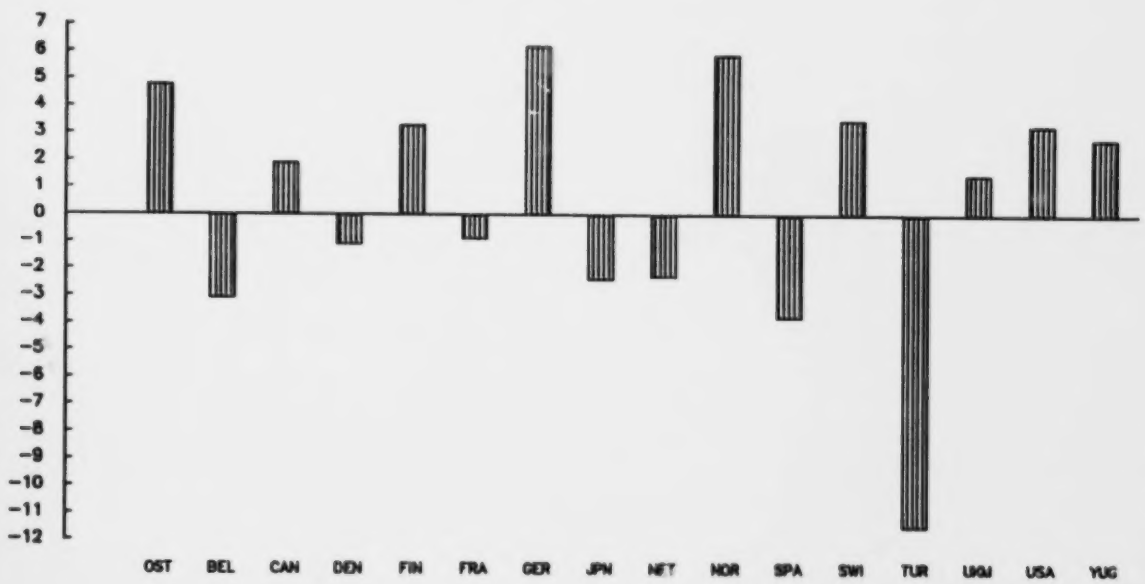
1.1. PUPILS IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

Enrolment in 1986-87

	Total	% girls	% of pupils in the private sector
Austria	190 373	48.8	26.3
Belgium	379 893	48.8	58.1
Canada	430 128	48.7	3.7
Denmark	56 132	49.1	8.4
Finland	98 400	..	..
France	2 539 895	48.7	12.6
Germany	1 685 786	49.3	0.1
Greece [a]	160 079	48.8	4.1
Ireland [a]	147 908	48.3	1.2
Japan	2 018 523	49.0	75.8
Luxembourg	21 959	49.0	..
Netherlands [b]	350 908	49.1	..
New Zealand [a]	60 666	48.8	0.4
Norway	104 302	..	36.3
Portugal [a]	104 438	48.2	20.7
Spain	1 084 752	49.6	37.2
Switzerland	127 428	48.6	3.4
Turkey	104 313	47.4	6.3
United Kingdom	675 000	48.7	5.5
United States	6 515 000	47.9	36.1
Yugoslavia	385 089	48.2	..

a/ 1985-86.
b/ Pupils in basic education (pre-primary and first level) aged 3 to 5.

Percentage change in enrolment between 1985-86 and 1986-87



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Comments

By and large, first level and second level-first stage education is compulsory, so enrolments are virtually the same as numbers of the corresponding age groups of the population as a whole. Trends in the former closely follow the latter. The same applies to the breakdown by sex. The only exception is the second level-first stage in Turkey where education at this stage has not yet been made compulsory for all, and where girls are still substantially under-represented.

Between 1985-86 and 1986-87 enrolments in the first level declined in eleven of the eighteen countries studied, though by less than between 1984-85 and 1985-86 in all of them except Japan. In Austria, an increase the previous period gave way to a slight decrease and the opposite occurred in Germany. Enrolments rose in Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States (more than in the previous period) and in Turkey (less). They have been stable in France.

The situation is quite different in the second level-first stage. In twelve countries of the sixteen for which data are available, there also was a drop of enrolments but this was more marked than between 1984-85 and 1985-86 in eight of them. The recent decline was slightly less marked in Germany and it reversed a previously upward trend in Australia, Denmark, and France. In the countries where enrolments grew, this was nevertheless lower than in the earlier period, except in Spain. Such demographic fluctuations and their shifting impact on enrolments have obviously serious implications for policies, particularly with regard to the recruitment and deployment of teaching staff and the use of school premises.

The private sector's share in first level education is nil or less than 5 per cent in eleven of the twenty countries studied but is almost a quarter in Australia and 35 per cent in Spain. Its share in the second level-first stage is equivalent to or higher than in the first level in all countries except Greece. In Norway and Sweden, where the two levels are part of an integrated basic education system, private education is virtually non-existent. As mentioned in Section 1.1, the distinction between the public and the private sector in Belgium and the Netherlands is not very meaningful, though they are included for the sake of completeness. In the other countries, it would be useful to know how far the private sector is publicly subsidised as it would for the other levels. Unfortunately, the public expenditure data drawn from the questionnaires, when they exist at all, do not permit this information to be obtained.

Classifications differing from the general definitions given at the end of Chapter 1.

First level education

First level education lasts four years in Germany, Austria, and in certain Swiss cantons. It is of seven years in two of the Australian states. Only the first four years of the Yugoslav basic eight-year education system have been counted as "first level". For both the United States and Canada, where elementary education lasts between six and eight years (depending on the school in the United States and the province in Canada), the first six years only have been counted.

Second level-first stage education

For some countries, there is no evident separation of the second level into two stages. For the purpose of international comparisons, the seventh, eighth and ninth grades in Australia (in those states where the seventh grade is not included in the first level), Canada, and the United States are considered as corresponding to the first stage. For Belgium, data for the second level as a whole are given in Section 1.3.

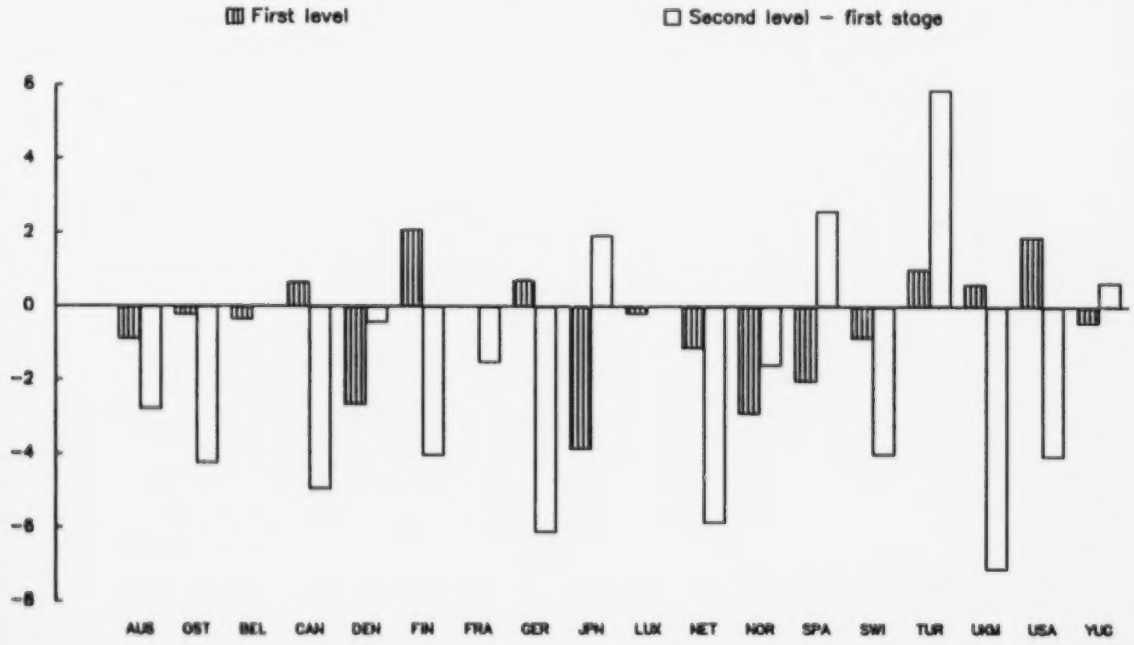
1.2. PUPILS IN FIRST LEVEL AND SECOND LEVEL-FIRST STAGE EDUCATION

Enrolment in 1986-87

	First level		Second level-first stage		% of pupils in the private sector	
	Total	% girls	Total	% girls	1st level	2nd level-1st stage
Australia	1 688 658	48.6	708 376	48.9	24.2	28.7
Austria	343 013	48.4	373 497	48.5	3.8	5.8
Belgium	727 647	49.1	..	..	55.2	..
Canada	2 269 639	48.2	1 076 453	48.8	3.3	5.6
Denmark	391 895	48.9	262 007	49.4	9.4	15.3
Finland	388 465	48.8	184 790	49.1	–	–
France	4 046 629	48.5	3 579 735	49.3	15.2	20.7
Germany	2 287 622	49.0	3 669 918	49.3	1.6	6.8
Greece [a]	887 735	48.4	440 460	47.3	5.8	3.3
Ireland [a]	420 236	48.8	212 318	49.1	..	..
Japan	10 665 404	48.8	6 105 749	48.8	0.6	3.0
Luxembourg	21 959	49.0	13 710	47.0	..	10.3
Netherlands [b]	1 096 868	49.4	872 209	48.0	68.6	79.1
New Zealand [a]	331 778	48.6	246 155	49.2	2.0	4.0
Norway	325 577	48.9	191 771	48.8	0.9	0.9
Portugal	1 178 639	..	351 224	..	6.4	9.4
Spain	3 412 939	48.6	2 349 406	49.6	34.6	35.1
Sweden	600 122	..	334 255	48.8	0.7	0.7
Switzerland	373 245	49.1	302 096	49.3	2.3	4.9
Turkey	6 703 528	47.1	1 962 130	34.9	0.5	2.3
United Kingdom	4 322 000	48.8	2 145 000	48.8	4.6	8.0
United States	20 598 000	48.4	10 079 000	49.1	11.2	..
Yugoslavia	1 442 248	48.1	1 407 358	47.8	..	..

a) 1985-86.
b) Pupils in basic education (pre-primary and first level) aged 6 and over.

Percentage change in enrolment in first level education and second level-first stage education between 1985-86 and 1986-87



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Comments

In every country, some or all of second level-second stage education is no longer compulsory, so that enrolment rates are less closely related to demographic factors than in the earlier, compulsory phases of education.

The female proportion in general or comprehensive education exceeds 49 per cent – about the same as their proportion in the age groups concerned – in 17 of the 23 countries. The sexes are relatively evenly balanced in four other countries. Girls are outnumbered slightly in Austria and are in a clearer minority in Turkey.

Girls outnumber boys in vocational/technical education in only seven countries out of nineteen but, except in Finland, to a greater extent than in general education. The female balance is less than 30 per cent of the relevant pupils in Greece and Turkey. For the rest, girls are better represented but still a minority and the percentage difference in the female share of enrolments between general education and vocational/technical education ranges from 2 points in Yugoslavia to almost 15 in Denmark.

The decrease in overall enrolments in general education observed between 1984-85 and 1985-86 continued between 1985-86 and 1986-87 in Austria, Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom and, except in Denmark, that fall became more pronounced. On the other hand, the previous growth accelerated in Australia, France, and the United States, while it continued but slowed in Japan and Spain. The previously downward trend in Canada and Yugoslavia was reversed. Declining enrolments in vocational/technical education became more pronounced in Germany, continued at a slower rate in Switzerland, and reversed the upward trend in Austria, Norway, and Yugoslavia. In others growth was apparent: higher in Spain, Japan, and the United Kingdom, less rapid in France, the Netherlands, and Turkey.

For countries where comparisons with the preceding year are not possible, declining enrolments in general education were apparent between 1985-86 and 1986-87 in Belgium, Finland, and Luxembourg. They rose in Turkey. Enrolments in vocational/technical education fell in Belgium but rose in Luxembourg and Denmark. To observe either annual changes or the balance of the sexes requires attention to the weight of the different types of education in each system. At one extreme, vocational/technical education is virtually non-existent in New Zealand and Portugal while it accounts for over 60 per cent of total numbers in second level-second stage education in Denmark, Luxembourg, Sweden and Yugoslavia.

In most countries, the private sector's share is higher in second level-second stage general education than in the first stage and in Japan it is almost ten times higher. Exceptions are Denmark, Luxembourg, Norway, and Spain. That share is often higher too in vocational/technical than in general education. Here, exceptions are Germany, France, Japan, Norway, Spain and Turkey.

Classifications differing from the general definitions given at the end of Chapter 1.

In countries where secondary education cannot be separated into two levels (Australia, Canada and the United States), the years following the ninth grade are counted as constituting the second stage. For Belgium, the data refer to the second level as a whole. It is to be noted that although apprenticeship may be full-time, the educational element is not, and so it is taken into account in Section 1.4.

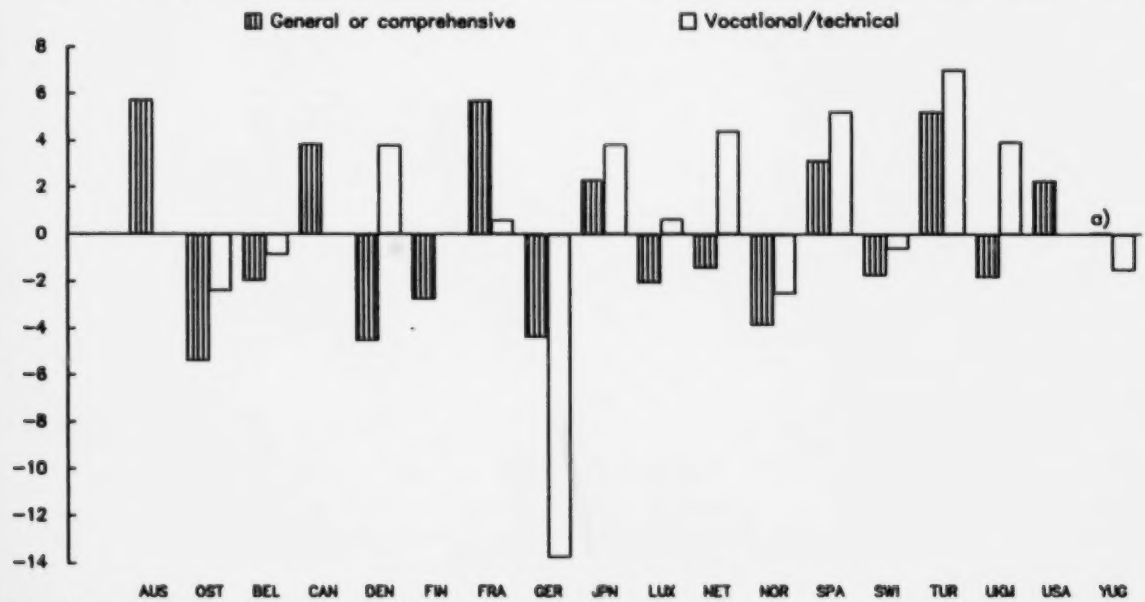
1.3. PUPILS IN SECOND LEVEL-SECOND STAGE EDUCATION (full-time)

Enrolment in 1986-87 by type of education

	General or comprehensive		Vocational/technical [a]		% of pupils in the private sector	
	Total	% girls	Total	% girls	General	Voc./technical
Australia [b]	581 081	50.5	..	..	30.8	..
Austria	99 970	47.2	174 157	53.3	10.8	22.0
Belgium	441 879	50.6	361 112	47.3	66.1	59.9
Canada	1 161 771	48.7	..	..	5.7	..
Denmark	70 257	58.1	156 511 [c]	43.6	9.0	96.4
Finland	105 208	60.0	151 131 [d]	50.7	4.2	..
France	901 338	58.0	1 181 036	46.9	23.9	17.2
Germany	634 289	49.6	549 064	56.1	10.4	9.1
Greece [e]	267 302	55.2	105 772	29.2	3.8	9.3
Ireland [e]	103 217	52.5	22 672	64.3	..	4.0
Japan	3 818 119	50.7	1 472 032	45.6	28.9	25.2
Luxembourg	4 072	55.7	8 971	45.7	5.0	11.6
Netherlands	232 936	51.8	288 429	46.0	71.3	87.3
New Zealand [e]	111 559	50.2	2 462	81.7	5.5	..
Norway	82 154	54.9	104 946	48.5	7.5	6.5
Portugal	193 436	..	7 473	..	6.6	9.6
Spain	1 278 206	53.8	1 033 189	49.1	30.0	27.6
Sweden	61 753	64.3	220 334	47.0	2.5	1.2
Switzerland	64 377	51.1	35 456	65.5	11.6	23.6
Turkey	661 049	43.2	477 959	28.4	3.3	0.2
United Kingdom [f]	2 125 000	49.2	419 000	54.2	10.0	..
United States	10 357 000	48.8	..	..	..	..
Yugoslavia	347 352	48.0	598 411	46.1	..	0.3

a) Including teacher training.
b) Including pupils for whom the year/grade of second level education was not specified and excluding Technical and Further Education (TAFE).
c) Including part-time education (apprenticeship).
d) Including students enrolled in third level programmes.
e) 1985-86.
f) General=programmes provided by schools. Vocational/technical=public non-advanced further education (NAFE) programmes.

Percentage change in enrolment in general education and vocational/technical education between 1985-86 and 1986-87



a) Low figure

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Comments

Few countries are able to supply information on part-time education, though it exists in most of them, and when it takes place outside the regular education system, it is not included as lying beyond the scope of the questionnaires on which these statistics are based. Thus, many of the training activities organised for young people seeking employment, or alternative forms of education for those leaving school with inadequate basic education and/or vocational training, are excluded.

In addition, it can be difficult (except for apprenticeships which tend to be defined similarly in all countries, though some arrangements vary such as the balance of schooling and practical work) to ascertain whether part-time programmes, particularly in general education, are intended for young people who are unable or unwilling to take the same type of course full-time, or whether they are actually adult training courses.

In the countries which provide figures, girls enrol in part-time education proportionately much less than boys, though exceptions here are Belgium and the United Kingdom. This under-representation applies to total enrolments (including general education), ordinary vocational/technical education except in Ireland, and apprenticeship.

The increase in enrolments recorded between 1984-85 and 1985-86 accelerated between 1985-86 and 1986-87 in Germany, France, Japan, the United Kingdom and especially Norway. The previously seen decrease slowed down in Belgium but it became more apparent in Austria and Switzerland.

In all the reference countries except Belgium, the trend between 1985-86 and 1986-87 was more favourable, in the sense of higher growth or lower decline, for part-time compared with full-time education, whereas in general the opposite occurred between 1984-85 and 1985-86 (not in the United Kingdom). It is obviously too early to say whether this represents a new trend, but it merits close attention by authorities for any action required in response to a growing demand for part-time education.

Classifications differing from the general definitions given at the end of Chapter 1.

Apprenticeships are full-time training leading to a qualification. In some countries, this is the same as that obtained at the end of full-time vocational education. Here, apprenticeships are considered as part-time since only part of the overall training takes place in a mainstream or specialised educational establishment. This obviously has implications for expenditure and, in particular, the number of teachers involved. The same applies to linked work and training where full-time education for a period of less than an academic year may be combined with another activity, usually vocational in nature, during the rest.

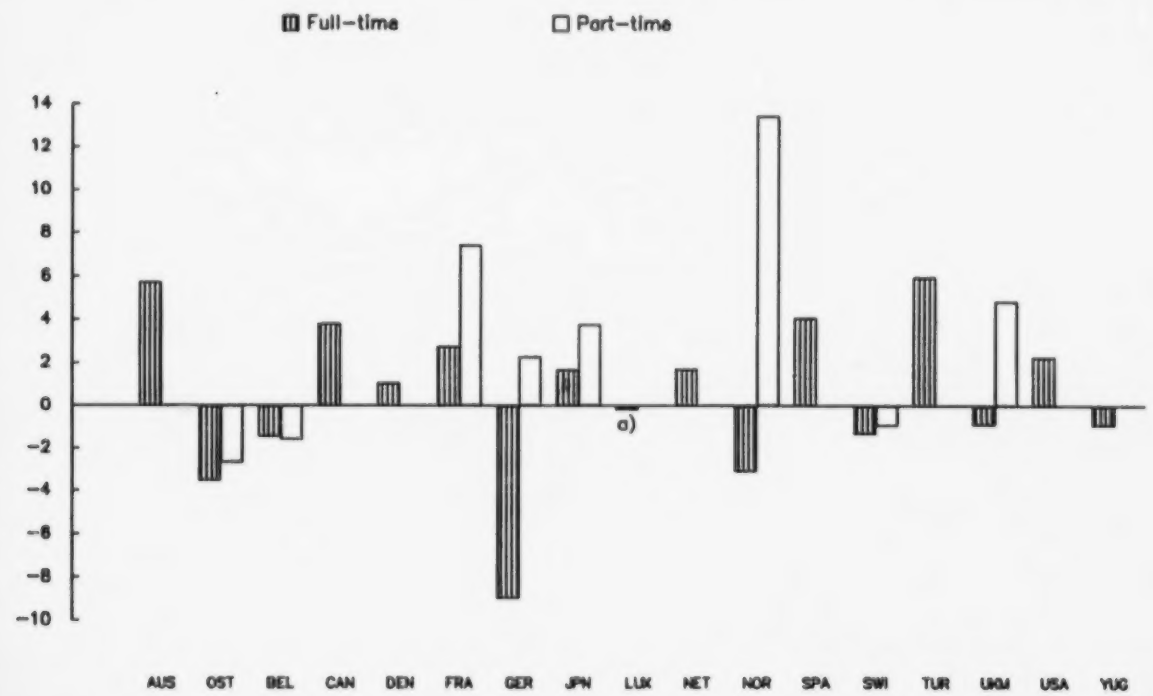
1.4. PUPILS IN PART-TIME EDUCATION

Enrolment in 1986-87, by type of education

	Second level vocational/technical		Apprenticeship		Total[a]	
	Total	% girls	Total	% girls	Total	% girls
Australia	..	..	130 600[b]	..	..	..
Austria	–	–	171 261	34.1	171 261	34.1
Belgium[c]	..	..	..	..	90 232	58.0
France	–	–	212 000	28.2	224 273	28.8
Germany	–	–	1 949 912	42.2	1 949 912	42.2
Ireland[d]	5 099	56.5	11 178	5.3	16 277	21.4
Japan	56 611	23.0	–	–	145 468	32.2
Luxembourg[d]	3 378	37.8	–	–	3 378	37.8
New Zealand[d]	45 711	39.3	–	–	45 711	39.3
Norway	9 654	33.0	22 005	..	31 928	..
Switzerland	3 632	38.3	210 794	38.4	216 537	38.5
United Kingdom[e]	1 458 000	54.0	–	–	1 458 000	54.0

a) Including other types of part-time education.
b) Subject to high sampling variability.
c) Not including pupils aged 24 or more.
d) 1986-86.
e) Public non-advanced further education (NAFE) programmes.

Percentage change in second level-second stage full-time and part-time education between 1985-86 and 1986-87



a) Low figure

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Comments

According to the general definition given at the end of this chapter, special education is designed for children with certain mental or physical disabilities or personality disorders that make it difficult for them to participate in normal education.

However, in some countries at least, this type of education is also provided, either in the same or in separate classes for low achievers – particularly those having difficulty learning to read or write – who are generally from disadvantaged backgrounds – and for children of foreign nationality with no knowledge or insufficient knowledge of the host-country language. For further details on this point, reference should be made to *Immigrants' children in school*, OECD, Paris 1987, published by the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI), and to Annex B of the fifteenth annual report of the Continuous Reporting System on Migration (SOPEMI), 1987, derestricted in 1988. According to these two studies, migrants' children outnumber nationals by a ratio of 1.5:1 to 2:1 in special education.

Moreover, the extent to which children receiving special education are integrated in the same establishments as the other children varies greatly from country to country and over time. Cross-country comparisons are therefore difficult to make.

It is to be noted, however, that the proportion of girls is relatively low in all cases – from about 30 to 40 per cent – except in Austria, where the absolute numbers are so low that they are not very meaningful.

The decrease in enrolment between 1984-85 and 1985-86 speeded up between 1985-86 and 1986-87 in Australia, Germany, Spain and the United Kingdom; the increase slowed down in Japan and Turkey, but was higher in the Netherlands. In Belgium, Norway and Switzerland the downward trend was reversed, while the opposite occurred in Yugoslavia. In France, the enrolment figures remained much the same.

In the case of the few countries which provided data on the private sector, it is to be noted that this sector's share is zero in Ireland and Yugoslavia, very low in Japan, Switzerland and the United Kingdom, and low – less than 16 per cent – in Australia and Germany, but that it exceeds 25 per cent in Greece and 50 per cent in Spain. For the reasons already stated, Belgium and the Netherlands have not been taken into account.

Classifications differing from the general definitions given at the end of Chapter 1.

Except where otherwise stated, the data opposite refer only to pupils attending special schools, since those receiving special education in ordinary schools should already be counted with the other pupils.

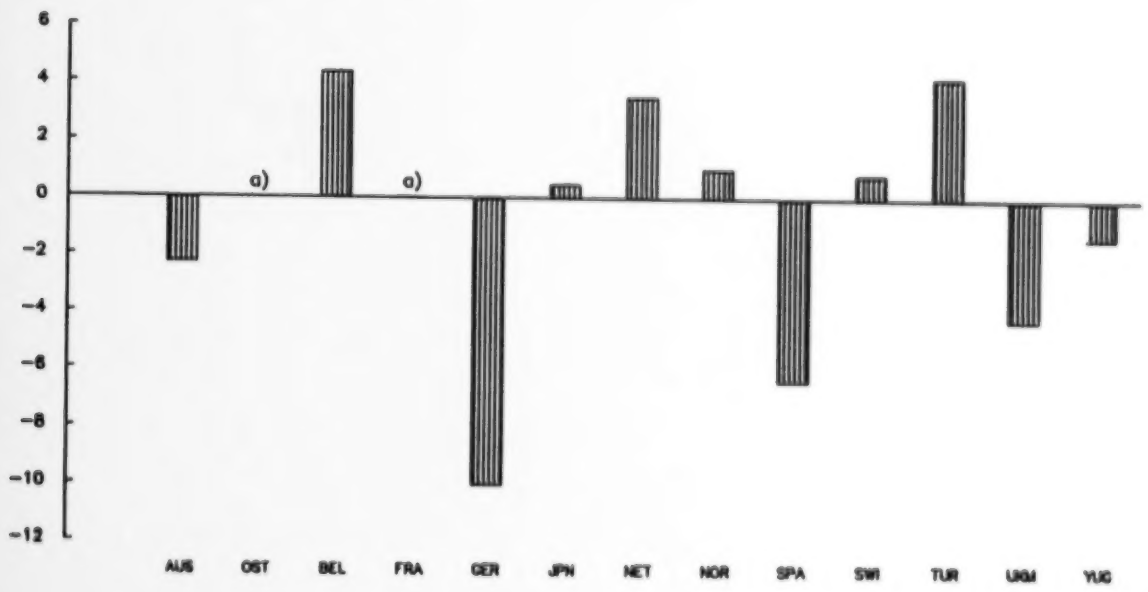
1.5. PUPILS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

Enrolment in 1986-87

	Total	% Girls	% of pupils in the private sector
Australia	23 274	38.9	12.8
Austria	597	44.4	..
Belgium	59 506	36.9	57.9
France	104 564	35.1	..
Germany	266 693	38.7	15.8
Greece [a]	6 224	39.6	26.8
Ireland [a]	8 432	41.0	–
Japan	95 857	37.8	0.9
Netherlands [b]	103 047	31.6	..
Norway	10 061	41.3	81.1
Spain	42 620	39.2	52.0
Sweden	12 216	..	..
Switzerland	32 563	38.7	1.5
Turkey	5 779	33.3	..
United Kingdom	124 719	36.3	5.8
Yugoslavia	27 975	38.7	–

a) 1985-86.
b) All special education is provided inside the regular school system but the pupils concerned are not included in the other tables.

Percentage change in enrolment in special education between 1985-86 and 1986-87



a) Low figure

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GENERAL DEFINITIONS

Pre-primary education is provided, on a full-time or part-time basis, in nursery schools, kindergartens or similar institutions or in sections attached to primary schools. Day nurseries, crèches, childcare centres or similar organisations whose primary function is not educational, are not included.

First level education, which is compulsory in every country, begins at age five, six or seven and lasts for some five or six years. In countries providing what they term a "basic education", generally covering the entire period of compulsory education, only the first six years are considered as first level education.

Second level-first stage education is provided for pupils who have already completed first level education as defined above. This level corresponds very often to the end of compulsory schooling. In most countries this consists of a general education, although some (France, Greece, the Netherlands) also provide vocational education which it would be more accurate to describe, at this stage, as "pre-vocational" since it is not really intended to prepare pupils for a particular trade or job.

Second level-second stage education refers to general, technical and vocational education, and teacher training provided for students who have already completed second level-first stage education. It may either be "terminal" (i.e. preparing students for entry directly into working life) or it may prepare students for third level education in the university or non-university sectors.

General education is the term used to denote education that is not intended to prepare students directly for a particular trade or job. In most countries it is still this type of education which provides students with the best chances of gaining entry to third level education, and universities in particular. Comprehensive education has been included in this category.

Teacher training at the second level is intended to provide training for teachers, generally for the pre-primary and primary levels. It now exists in only a few countries: Austria, Greece, Italy, Switzerland, Turkey and Yugoslavia, as well as in the Netherlands and Norway where, however, the numbers enrolled are very small.

Vocational/technical education covers education designed to train students for a particular occupation or group of related occupations.

Part-time second level education is education organised in such a way that students can exercise another activity, either full-time or part-time. In most cases, but not always, this education is of a vocational character. It may be similar to full-time education of the same type (e.g. evening classes) or specially designed. Only education organised within the framework of the formal education system is covered here.

Special education is designed for children with certain mental or physical disabilities or personality disorders that make it difficult for them to participate in normal education. This type of education may be provided in regular classes, in special classes of regular schools, or in special schools.

Other data available, when provided by the countries

For each level and type of education: Official entrance age. Duration of education. Number of institutions. Distribution of pupils by grade, age and sex. Number of repeaters. All the data are available separately for the public and the private sector.

2. TEACHERS

2. TEACHERS

General remarks on Chapter 2

International comparisons with respect to *teaching staff* are certainly among the hardest to make. The term "teacher" itself does not necessarily have the same meaning from country to country. Methods of recruitment and required qualifications can also differ within countries: several categories of teacher with different qualifications and duties may be working alongside one another at the same level. In some countries a particular category of teacher may be allowed to teach only at a particular level, whereas in others a teacher may be assignable to more than one level. In addition to these conceptual difficulties, further difficulties arise, as mentioned in the Introduction, from differences in the way in which both pupils and teachers are classified and from the scarcity of information about full-time equivalents. This means that any comparison of the data in this chapter with the pupil data in Chapter 1 would be misleading.

Comments

Almost all pre-primary teachers are women. The only exceptions are in Japan, where about 12 per cent are men, and Ireland with about 25 per cent men. The female proportion has not changed much between 1985-86 and 1986-87, except in Spain where it has risen by over 3 points.

But the total number of teachers did increase over the two years in eight of the ten countries for which the comparison was possible. The increase was greater than between 1984-85 and 1985-86 in Austria and especially Germany, and it reversed a downturn in France. The increase continued in Denmark and Yugoslavia, though less strongly. In Japan the very slight decline was more or less the same in both periods.

The percentage of part-time teachers in the few countries for which data are available exceeds 10 per cent only in Austria, by very little, and in Germany.

The proportion of part-time female teachers is very much the same as for total teachers except in Japan where it is much lower. In Japan nearly 70 per cent of male pre-primary teachers are part-time.

Classifications differing from the general definitions of education levels given at the end of Chapter 1.

Pre-primary teachers are included with first level teachers for Canada, the Netherlands (where pre-primary and first level education are integrated) and the United Kingdom.

General definitions for teachers are given at the end of Chapter 2.

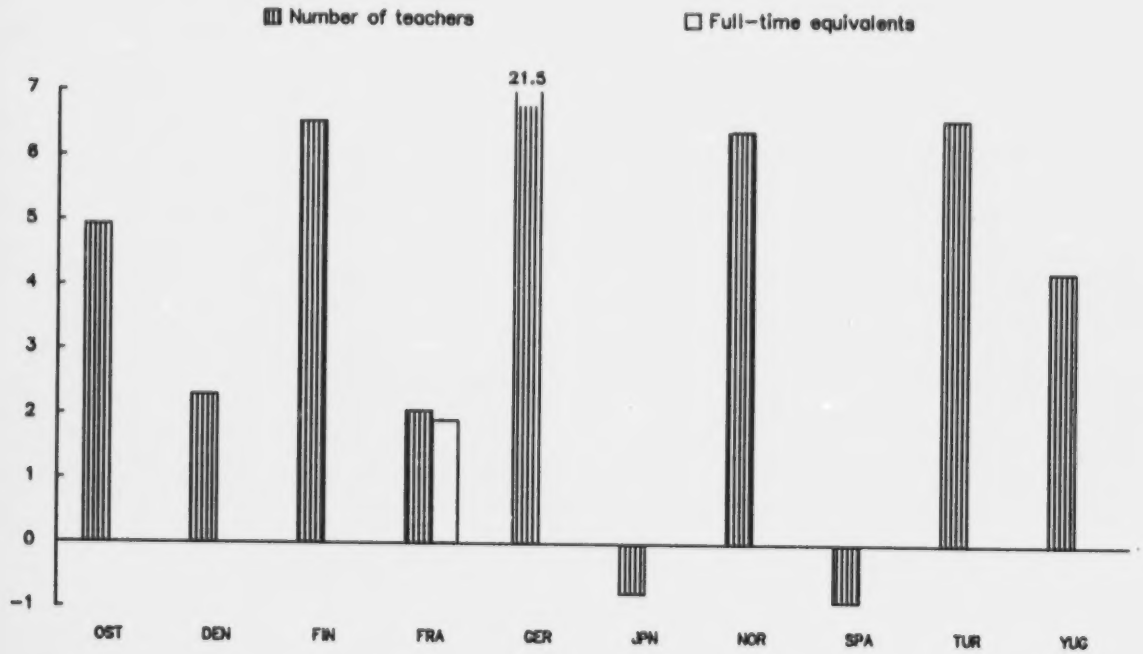
2.1. TEACHERS IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

Figures for 1986-87

	Number of teachers		% part-time		Full-time equivalents	
	Total	% women	Total	% women	Total	% women
Austria	8 563	99.6	10.6	10.6	..	..
Denmark	3 675	57.2	..	..	..	..
Finland	11 400	..	..	..	..	..
France[a]	73 192	96.1	6.8	6.7	70 698	96.0
Germany	5 311	91.4	13.5	12.2	..	..
Greece[b]	7 617	100.0	..	..	..	..
Ireland[b]	5 164	75.9	0.7	0.7	..	..
Japan	106 767	88.2	8.4	2.7	..	..
New Zealand[b]	..	..	..	..	1 459	..
Norway	7 898	..	..	..	..	..
Portugal[b]	5 640	..	..	..	..	..
Spain	39 217	96.0	..	..	..	..
Turkey	6 293	99.5	..	..	..	..
United Kingdom	26 000	100.0	7.7	7.7	25 000	100.0
United States[c]	..	..	..	..	56 000	..
Yugoslavia[d]	39 293	94.4	..	..	..	..

a) Public sector only.
b) 1985-86.
c) Private sector only.
d) Total staff.

Percentage change in the number of teachers and full-time equivalents between 1985-86 and 1986-87



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Comments

For general remarks on international teacher comparisons, see the beginning of Section 2.1.

Women are not so preponderant in first level education as in pre-primary but, even so, they account for more than 70 per cent of first level teachers in ten of the nineteen countries studied. On the other hand, in Turkey, female teachers are a minority. In most countries the female proportion was somewhat higher than in 1985-86.

Between 1985-86 and 1986-87, and compared with the trend between 1984-85 and 1985-86, the total number of teachers continued to increase, more strongly in Belgium, Norway, Yugoslavia and, especially, Canada, and at much the same pace in Turkey. After a very steep rise, the number more or less levelled out in Austria, while it declined in France and the Netherlands. Declines continued at a slightly faster rate in Denmark and the United Kingdom and at the same rate in Germany and Japan. In Spain a slight increase was reversed by a decline.

The proportions of part-time teachers showed much wider variations than for pre-primary education. It was very low, under 5 per cent, in Germany, France, Ireland, Japan and Yugoslavia, but exceeded 30 per cent in Norway and the Netherlands. In the other countries it ranged from 9 to 14 per cent.

The proportion of women teaching part-time was much the same as for all teachers in Austria, Ireland, Japan and Yugoslavia, and slightly lower in Germany. In the other countries it was higher, sometimes a great deal higher, the extreme case being Norway where half the women were teaching part-time as against only 10 per cent of the men. This gap is probably not much affected by the fact that Norway's data relate both to first level and to second level-first stage education.

The big differences between countries in the proportions of part-time teachers are reflected in the comparison, where data provided permit, between the number of full-time equivalents and total teacher numbers. When the proportion is low the two figures are very much the same, but when it is high the difference can be quite large, e.g. about 20 per cent in the Netherlands. These differences are in line with the comments in the Introduction and at the beginning of Section 2.1 to the effect that using the total number of teachers to calculate pupil/teacher ratios, which is not very meaningful even at national level, would be altogether invalid internationally.

Classifications differing from the general definitions of education levels given at the end of Chapter 1.

The figures for first level teachers include pre-primary teachers for Canada, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, and second level-first stage teachers for Norway and Sweden. For the United States the figures are for teachers in elementary schools which include the pre-primary level, the first six grades and, in some cases, the seventh and eighth grades.

General definitions for teachers are given at the end of Chapter 2.

2.2. TEACHERS IN FIRST LEVEL EDUCATION

Figures for 1986-87

	Number of teachers		% part-time		Full-time equivalents	
	Total	% women	Total	% women	Total	% women
Australia	..	..	..	..	90 685	70.9
Austria	33 100	79.7	14.0	14.0	..	..
Belgium	68 420	75.6	14.2	16.7	63 972	74.7
Canada [a]	86 623	68.9	10.6	13.0	82 404	68.1
Denmark	34 376	57.2	..	..	..	..
France [b]	239 438	71.3	4.8	6.3	233 703	71.6
Germany	131 351	79.2	3.2	2.9	..	..
Greece [c]	37 994	48.9	..	..	..	..
Ireland [c]	15 674	76.0	1.0	1.0	..	..
Japan	457 767	56.3	0.7	0.8	..	..
Luxembourg [d]	1 768	49.1	..	..	..	..
Netherlands	84 999	63.5	32.4	44.3	69 682	57.9
New Zealand [c]	..	..	..	..	16 547	70.6
Norway	50 299	59.8	34.4	50.3	..	..
Portugal [c]	70 897	..	..	..	..	..
Spain	116 098	72.6	..	..	..	..
Sweden	92 845	67.9	..	..	..	..
Turkey	216 859	41.8	..	..	..	..
United Kingdom	213 000	78.4	9.4	11.4	202 000	77.7
Yugoslavia	62 254	71.3	1.2	1.3	..	..
	93 853	65.6	17.0	22.7	85 089	64.0

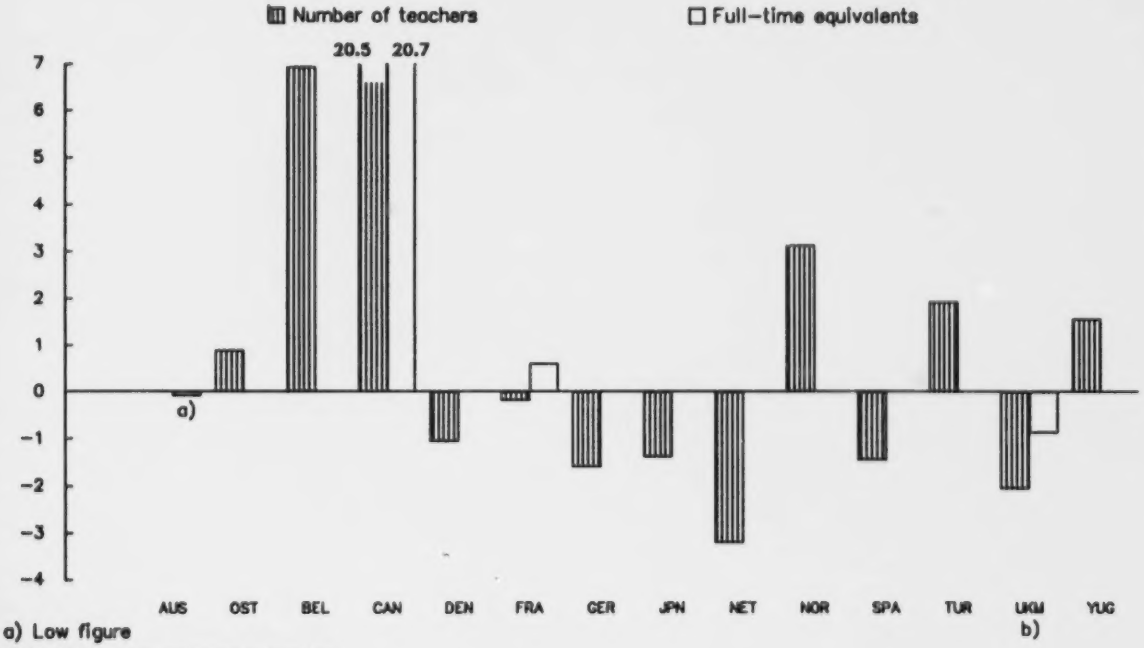
a) The figures refer only to teachers in schools providing education solely at the pre-primary level and the first six grades. These schools cater for about 50 per cent of the total number of pupils enrolled in first level education. The data for teachers in schools that provide both first and second level education are the following:

b) Including teachers in private pre-primary education.

c) 1985-86.

d) Public sector only.

Percentage change in the number of teachers and full-time equivalents between 1985-86 and 1986-87



a) Low figure

b) Including pre-primary education

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Comments

For general remarks on international teacher comparisons, see the beginning of Section 2.1.

In seven of the eleven countries for which second level-first stage teachers can be distinguished either from first level teachers or from second level-second stage teachers, women still form the majority but, except in Denmark, to a much lesser extent than in the earlier education levels. Here again women as a proportion generally increased very slightly between 1985-86 and 1986-87.

Over the same period the increase in the number of teachers recorded between 1984-85 and 1985-86 continued at much the same pace in Japan and Yugoslavia, more slowly in Spain and especially Austria, and also in Denmark where it was particularly high. The decline was stronger in Germany than during the earlier period, while in France the numbers held steady.

In the few countries for which data are available, the proportion of part-time teachers was on the whole higher than in the first stage and the gap between all teachers and female teachers had widened slightly.

Classifications differing from the general definitions of education levels given at the end of Chapter 1.

Teachers in the second level-first stage are included with those in first level education for Norway and Sweden and with those in second level-second stage general or comprehensive education for Australia, Belgium, Canada, the Netherlands, New Zealand and the United Kingdom.

General definitions for teachers are given at the end of Chapter 2.

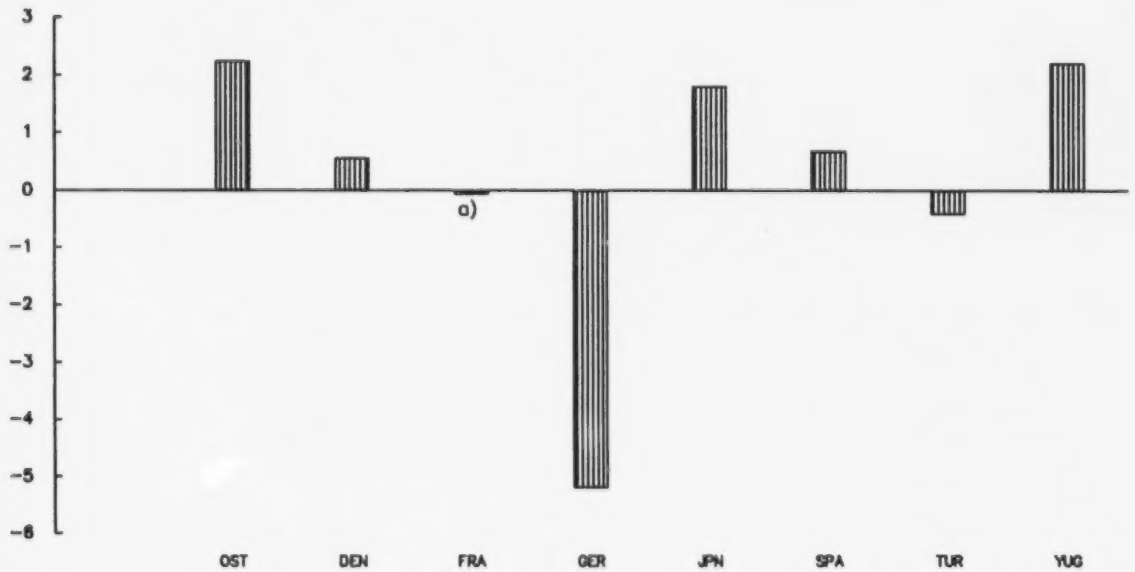
2.3. TEACHERS IN SECOND LEVEL-FIRST STAGE EDUCATION

Figures for 1986-87 [a]

	Number of teachers		% part-time	
	Total	% women	Total	% women
Austria	54 934	59.3	39.3	38.7
Denmark	31 414	57.5	..	..
Finland	16 638	..	..	..
France [b]	182 366	60.8	12.4	17.4
Germany	276 348	48.1	8.4	10.2
Greece [c]	25 053	62.4	..	..
Japan	304 167	34.8	4.7	6.3
Spain	80 130	51.4	..	..
Turkey	42 423	32.4	..	..
United Kingdom	129 000	50.4	8.5	15.4
Yugoslavia	76 678	53.7	10.0	11.4

a) No figures for full-time equivalents, except for the United Kingdom: 122 000 (women: 46.7 per cent).
b) Public sector only.
c) 1985-86.

Percentage change in the number of teachers between 1985-86 and 1986-87



a) Low figure

59

Comments

For general remarks on international teacher comparisons, see the beginning of Section 2.1.

In general second level-second stage education the female proportion of teachers declines sharply. Women still only just form the majority in Austria, Belgium, Spain and the United Kingdom and are more or less equal with men in France, but they account for barely more than one-third of the numbers in Norway and slightly less in Germany. In the Netherlands the proportion falls to 27 per cent and in Japan to 22 per cent. Apart from Germany where the female proportion remained level, it rose in all countries by comparison with the 1985-86 figure and more appreciably than for earlier education levels.

Between 1985-86 and 1986-87 the total number of teachers increased more strongly than between 1984-85 and 1985-86 in Canada, France and especially Germany, and stabilized in Australia (full-time equivalents) and in Norway. Against this, declines gathered pace in the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Yugoslavia and reversed an upward trend in Spain. In countries for which the previous period's trend was not available, increases are reported for Austria and Turkey (over 12 per cent), but a downturn for Belgium.

Except in Canada and the United Kingdom, for the total but not for women teachers, the proportion of part-time teachers exceeds 10 per cent. In Spain and the Netherlands it exceeds one-third of teachers, as it does for women teachers in Belgium, and is nearly 90 per cent in Austria. In most of the countries there are far more women than men teaching part-time.

The numbers of full-time equivalents increased more rapidly than the total number of teachers in Canada but declined faster in the United Kingdom. The Netherlands is a very interesting case. Between 1985-86 and 1986-87 the total number of teachers fell by slightly over 2 per cent, whereas full-time equivalents rose by about 9.5 per cent. The rather small increase in the number of part-time teachers, from 30 to 35 per cent of the total, cannot by itself account for the difference. The main cause is probably the big increase in the number of hours taught by the part-time teachers. The result is that fewer part-time teachers are needed to make up a full-time equivalent. This shows that even pupil/teacher ratios calculated on the basis of the total number of teachers may conceal some very different situations.

Classifications differing from the general definitions of education levels given at the end of Chapter 1.

The figures for teachers in second level-second stage general education include those in the first stage for Australia, Belgium, Canada, the Netherlands, New Zealand and the United Kingdom.

For Belgium, Japan, Norway, Portugal and Yugoslavia the figures cover both general and vocational/technical education, as they also do for Ireland, except that teachers in exclusively vocational/technical schools are not included.

The general definitions for teachers are given at the end of Chapter 2.

2.4. TEACHERS IN SECOND LEVEL-SECOND STAGE GENERAL EDUCATION

Figures for 1986-87

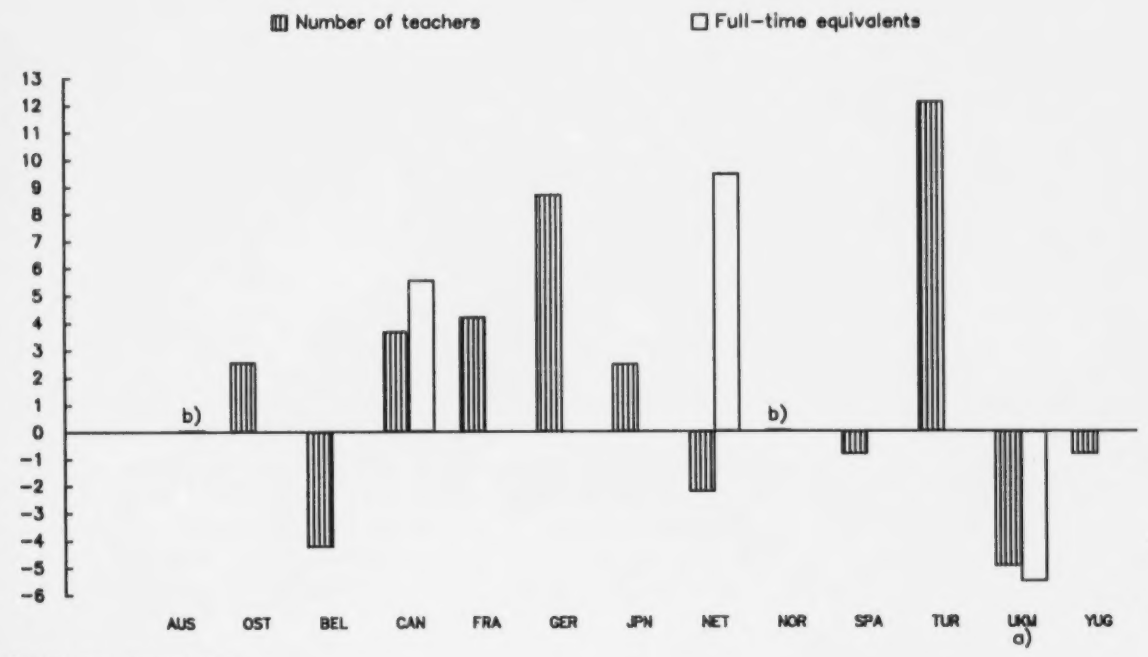
	Number of teachers		% part-time		Full-time equivalents	
	Total	% women	Total	% women	Total	% women
Australia	..	..	..	..	101 115	47.3
Austria	19 085	52.2	88.8	89.6	..	..
Belgium	103 999	51.3	25.3	36.4	95 164	49.2
Canada [a]	121 301	45.5	7.7	13.4	118 211	39.4
Denmark [b]	7 578	..	..	..	..	..
France [c]	89 807	49.5	12.0	18.5	..	..
Germany	73 591	30.6	10.4	31.0	..	..
Greece [b]	17 480	46.6	..	..	..	..
Ireland [b]	21 226	..	..	..	..	..
Japan	328 265	22.1	16.4	29.3	..	..
Netherlands	52 162	27.5	34.9	74.0	43 306	21.1
New Zealand [b]	..	..	..	..	19 050	46.8
Norway	23 972	34.1	24.3	42.3	..	..
Portugal [b]	43 274	..	..	..	..	..
Spain	74 918	50.2	36.5	..	..	..
Sweden [c]	26 986	..	..	..	22 319	..
Turkey	58 172	41.9	..	..	..	..
United Kingdom	176 000	50.6	8.5	15.7	168 000	47.0
Yugoslavia	57 391	47.4	15.1	14.6	..	..

a) The figures refer only to teachers in schools providing education solely at grades 7 to 13. These schools cater for about 80 per cent of the total number of pupils enrolled in second level education. The data for teachers in schools that provide both first level and second level education are the following:

	93 853	65.6	17.0	22.7	85 089	64.0

b) 1985-86.
c) Public sector only.

Percentage change in the number of teachers and full-time equivalents between 1985-86 and 1986-87



a) First and second stage
b) Low figure

61

Comments

For general remarks on international teacher comparisons, see the beginning of Section 2.1.

Relatively few countries can provide separate data for teachers in second level-second stage vocational/technical education and only the Netherlands and the United Kingdom can provide data for full-time equivalents. The female proportion is very small, except in Austria and to a lesser extent in France. Germany and the Netherlands apart, the female proportion is far lower than in second level-second stage general education.

Teacher number trends between 1984-85 and 1985-86, and between 1985-86 and 1986-87 can only be compared for six countries. Increases in the number of teachers accelerated in Spain, slowed down in Austria and Turkey and continued at the same pace in France. An increase reversed a downtrend in the United Kingdom and a particularly marked one in Germany.

In the four countries providing information about part-time teachers, they were proportionally more than in second stage general education in Germany and the United Kingdom, and fewer in France and the Netherlands.

Classifications differing from the general definitions of education levels given at the end of Chapter 1.

Teachers in second level-second stage vocational/technical education are included with those in general education for Belgium, Japan, Norway, Portugal and Yugoslavia, as well as for Ireland except for teachers in exclusively vocational/technical education.

In Finland the figures include teachers who instruct at the third level. For the United Kingdom they refer to teachers in non-advanced level public full-time and part-time further education.

For the Netherlands data are not comparable with those for 1985-86, since teachers of third level programmes were excluded in 1986-87.

The general definitions for teachers are given at the end of Chapter 2.

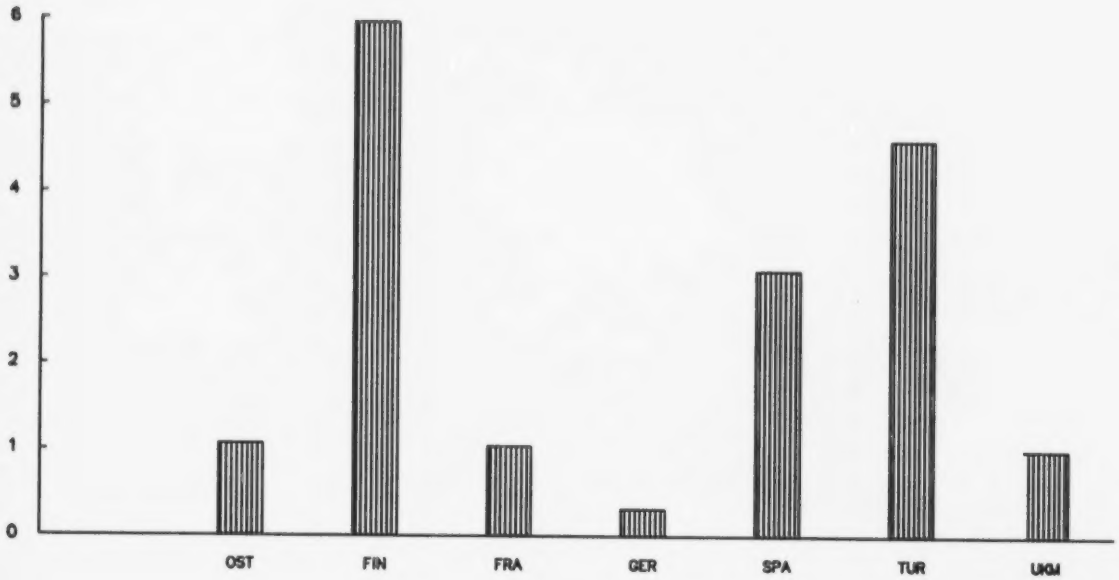
2.5. TEACHERS IN SECOND LEVEL-SECOND STAGE VOCATIONAL/TECHNICAL EDUCATION AND TEACHER TRAINING

Figures for 1986-87

	Number of teachers		% part-time		Full-time equivalents	
	Total	% women	Total	% women	Total	% women
Austria	18 313	48.1	..	..	..	..
Finland	16 638	..	..	..	..	..
France [a]	56 756	42.0	9.5	16.2	..	..
Germany	53 031	39.2	18.7	21.4	..	..
Greece [b]	7 855	34.1	..	..	..	..
Ireland [b]	108	14.8	..	..	..	..
Netherlands	48 457	29.1	33.5	65.9	39 906	23.5
Spain	53 950	35.8	..	..	..	..
Turkey	46 204	35.0	..	..	..	..
United Kingdom	100 000	27.0	34.0	37.0	83 000	26.5

a/ Public sector only.
b/ 1985-86.

Percentage change in the number of teachers between 1985-86 and 1986-87



63

Comments

For general remarks on international teacher comparisons, see the beginning of Section 2.1.

As with pupil numbers (see Section 1.5), data, unless otherwise indicated, relate only to special education provided outside ordinary institutions.

In all the countries studied, apart from Turkey and Japan, women predominated. In the Netherlands the two sexes were more or less equal. In general, women formed a lower proportion than in the first level.

While between 1984-85 and 1985-86 teacher numbers had increased in seven of the nine countries studied, in these same countries, between 1985-86 and 1986-87 the rise continued only in Japan and in Turkey where it slowed down, and also in Yugoslavia and the Netherlands where it accelerated (especially in the latter). For Australia (full-time equivalents), Norway and the United Kingdom the fairly rapid increase gave way to a fall. Furthermore, the decline accelerated in Germany and Spain. As regards Belgium and France, for which the trend between 1984-85 and 1985-86 is not known, the number of teachers declined in Belgium and increased in France between 1985-86 and 1986-87.

The proportion of part-time teachers was relatively high, from 15 to 32 per cent, only in Belgium, Norway and the Netherlands. In all countries apart from Norway and the Netherlands it was, however, higher than in the first level and women also predominated.

General definitions of education levels and for teachers are given at the end of Chapter 1 and at the end of Chapter 2, respectively.

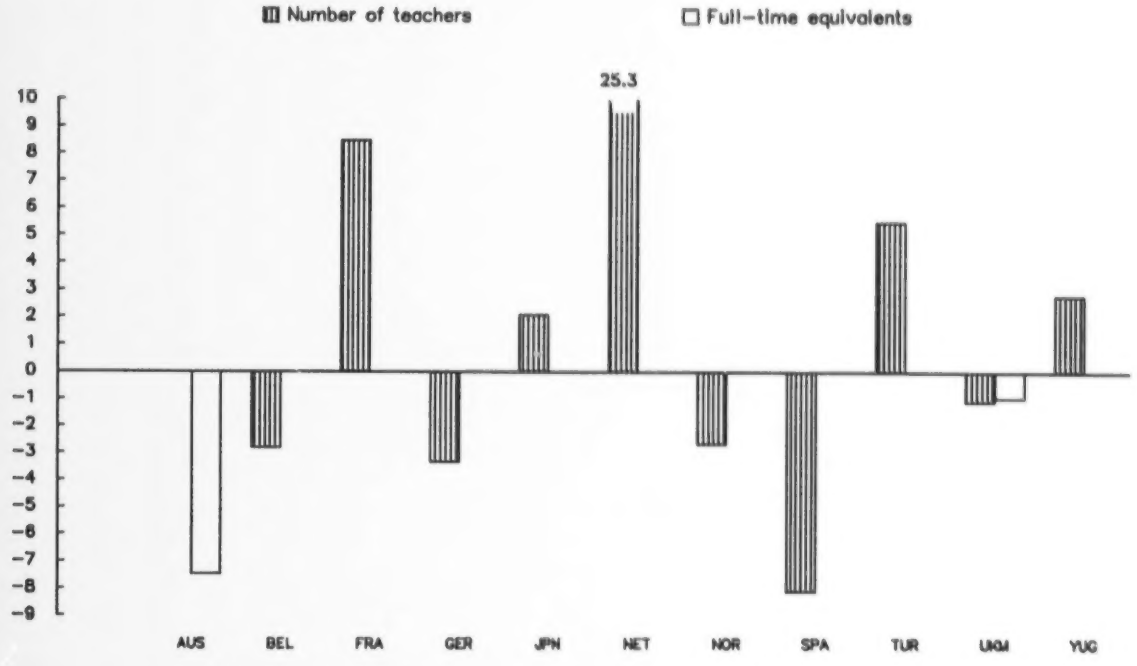
2.6. TEACHERS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

Figures for 1986-87

	Number of teachers		% part-time		Full-time equivalents	
	Total	% women	Total	% women	Total	% women
Australia	..	..	..	..	4 921	75.2
Belgium	13 256	58.0	16.5	23.0	12 361	56.4
France	14 297	..	..	..	..	..
Germany	44 644	63.2	6.2	6.5	..	..
Greece [a]	934	61.3	..	..	..	..
Ireland [a]	921	75.6	–	–	921	75.6
Japan	41 271	49.3	2.9	3.1	..	..
Netherlands [b]	14 462	49.4	31.7	49.0	12 161	43.6
Norway	3 828	65.8	21.9	29.0	..	..
Spain	5 146	72.8	..	..	..	..
Sweden	4 191	..	..	..	..	..
Turkey	708	36.6	..	..	..	..
United Kingdom	20 345	69.0	8.1	10.5	19 518	68.0
Yugoslavia [c]	4 676	71.5	7.8	5.9	..	..

a) 1985-86.
b) All special education is provided inside the regular school system but the teachers concerned are not included in the other tables.
c) Primary special education only.

Percentage change in the number of teachers and full-time equivalents between 1985-86 and 1986-87



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2. TEACHERS

GENERAL DEFINITIONS

Definitions of education levels are given at the end of Chapter 1.

Teaching staff: total number of teachers, both full-time and part-time, including supply teachers but excluding administrative staff with no teaching duties.

Full-time teachers are those who work the statutory number of hours required for the category to which they belong.

Part-time teachers are those who work for less than the statutorily required number of hours. Teachers who teach at several levels are, in principle, counted as part-time teachers for each level in proportion to the numbers of hours involved. Similarly, teachers doing overtime are normally counted as both full-time teachers and part-time teachers.

Full-time equivalents are in principle calculated by totalling the number of hours, including overtime, worked by all the teachers in a given category, and dividing this figure by the number of statutory hours required for that category. However, certain countries may use other methods of calculation.

Whereas, for the purposes of international comparison, pupils can somewhat arbitrarily be classified into levels and stages corresponding to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), the same cannot be done in the case of teachers, whose classification is based on national criteria. In every case in which the classification for teachers differs from that adopted for pupils in the different sections of Chapter 1, this is indicated in each section of Chapter 2.

Other data available, when provided by the countries

All the data are available separately for the public and the private sector.

3. STUDENTS

Comments

Among the new entrants to level 5, women are in the majority in ten of the fifteen countries studied, accounting for 65 per cent and over in Austria and Denmark and 85 per cent in Japan. The figure is about 48 per cent in three other countries. Conversely, women represent only slightly over one-third of the total in Turkey and barely more than a quarter in Switzerland. Spain has little or no enrolments at level 5, so female representativeness has no great significance.

At level 6 women are also in the majority in six of the sixteen countries but exceed 55 per cent only in France. They are particularly under-represented, one-third or less of the total, in Turkey and Japan. All countries apart from France, Greece and Switzerland have proportionally fewer women at this level than at level 5.

Between 1985-86 and 1986-87 for those countries having data available for those years, the female proportion increased in both levels in Finland, Japan, Spain and Turkey. It fell back at level 5 but increased at level 6 in Denmark, France, Germany, Greece and the United Kingdom; the pattern was reversed only in Austria. In the United States, the female proportion declined at both levels.

Given the differences between countries in the weight of each of levels 5 and 6 in total new entrants, the differences for the proportion of women in the total are less marked. They are still in the majority in ten of the seventeen countries but do not represent 55 per cent in any. It is still in Switzerland (33 per cent) and in Turkey (30 per cent) that they are least represented.

The proportion of new entrants to level 5 compared with the total for levels 5 and 6 is almost negligible in Italy and Spain, low (under 20 per cent) in Austria and Turkey, but exceeds 55 per cent in Finland and the United States, 60 per cent in Switzerland and 75 per cent in Sweden. Between 1985-86 and 1986-87 the proportion rose in Finland, France, Japan, the United Kingdom (quite strongly) and the United States. It remained relatively unchanged in Denmark, Germany and Turkey and fell back in Austria and Greece.

Remarks

For the general definitions, see the end of Chapter 3.

In some cases the total number of new entrants may not be the same as the sum of new entrants to levels 5 and 6, either because some of them cannot be assigned to a particular level or because the total relates to the number of persons, whereas the figure for each level refers to the number of enrolments (one student may enrol for more than one programme).

For the United States, the two-year institutions have been assimilated here with level 5, although some of their programmes are actually similar to those given during the first two years at the four-year institutions.

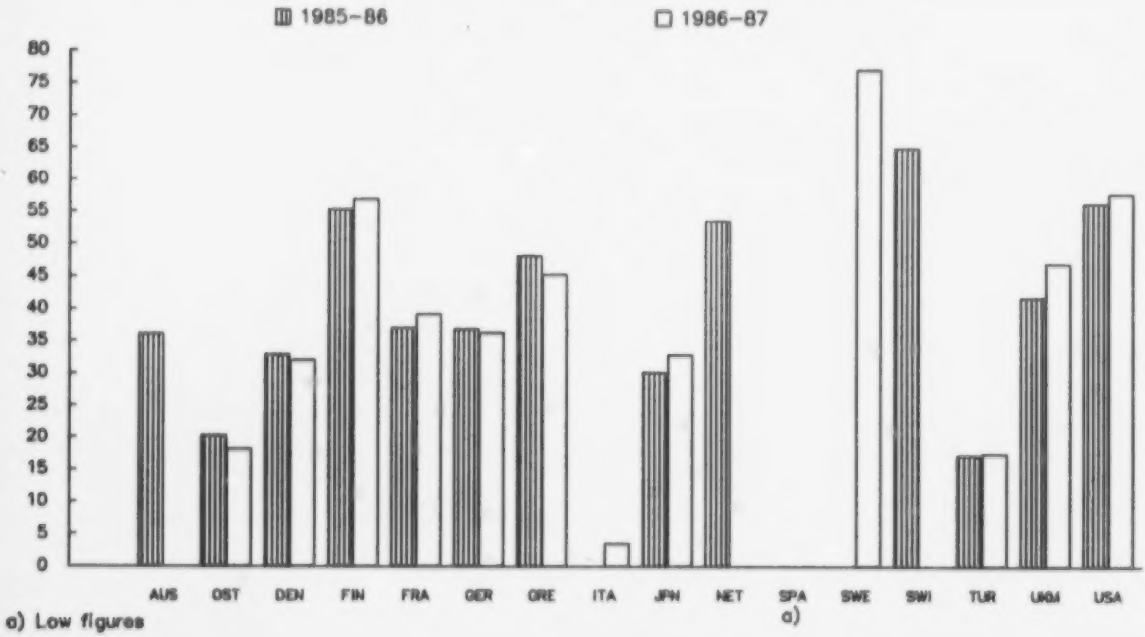
3.1. NEW ENTRANTS IN THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION

New entrants in 1986-87 (total full-time and part-time)

	Level 5		Level 6		Total	
	Total	% women	Total	% women	Total	% women
Australia [a]	46 792	56.7	82 567	48.1	139 217 [b]	50.3
Austria	5 196	65.0	23 385	48.9	27 670	52.0
Belgium	..	..	..	..	65 256	53.4
Denmark	9 937	65.4	20 981	48.5	30 918	53.9
Finland [c]	17 222	55.0	12 947	53.0	30 428	54.0
France	108 491	48.7	167 965	58.3	276 456	54.5
Germany	99 928	58.0	174 761	40.3	274 689	46.7
Greece	22 697	47.9	27 325	53.0	50 022	50.7
Ireland [d]	..	..	..	..	19 076	47.5
Italy	9 035	55.9	240 904	47.5	249 939	47.8
Japan	220 694	87.4	449 850	26.4	670 544	46.4
Netherlands	..	..	41 001 [e]	41.5	..	..
New Zealand	..	..	..	..	22 013 [f]	..
Norway	..	..	12 016 [g]	..	..	..
Spain	81	72.8	200 624	50.8	200 705	50.8
Sweden	65 294	55.7	19 138	52.2	83 570	54.9
Switzerland [e]	23 400	25.2	12 498	39.0	36 589	30.1
Turkey	23 256	34.1	108 992	33.1	132 248	33.3
United Kingdom	143 000	47.9	159 900	44.1	302 900	45.9
United States [e]	1 115 755	51.8	1 176 467	54.3	2 292 222	53.1

a) 1985-86.
b) Number of students enrolled for the first time in a given course at a given institution even if they have been enrolled previously at another institution or in another course. Excluding 606 966 new entrants (of which 49.3 per cent of women) in TAFE (Technical and Further Education) which offers courses of various levels.
c) Full-time only.
d) 1985-86. Full-time only.
e) Universities and Distance-learning universities only.
f) Excluding Technical Correspondence Institutes and part-time new entrants in Polytechnics/Technical Institutes.
g) Universities only.

New entrants in level 5 as a percentage of all new entrants in levels 5 and 6 in 1985-86 and 1986-87



a) Low figures

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Comments

In 1986-87 (or 1985-86 for some countries) over one-third of the cohort in Australia, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Japan, New Zealand and Switzerland began third level studies. The proportion exceeds 60 per cent in the United States and Sweden, though in the latter many level 5 students enroll in generally short, single-subject courses. Only in Austria and, especially, Turkey is the proportion under 25 per cent.

Apart from Australia, where the proportion is much the same for both sexes, two sets of countries can be distinguished. The first and largest set is of countries in which the female proportion is higher, sometimes much higher (20 to 30 per cent). In the second set proportionally more men than women undertake third level studies but the gaps are much narrower than in the first set, except in Turkey where it is over 80 per cent and Switzerland where it is more than double.

The position changes if levels 5 and 6 are considered separately. At level 5 the proportion of female and male students is almost identical in France, Greece and the United Kingdom. In all the other countries except Turkey it is higher for female students, double in Austria, Denmark, and almost triple in Switzerland, while Japan has proportionally over seven times as many female students. More female than male students also undertake level 6 studies in Finland, France, Greece, Norway, Spain, Sweden and the United States but the differences are generally smaller than for level 5. In Austria and Denmark male and female students are equally represented. In the other countries the proportion of men is higher, 50 per cent or more in Switzerland and the Netherlands, 80 per cent in Turkey and nearly three times as high in Japan.

Between 1985-86 and 1986-87, the proportion of the cohort entering third level education rose for both sexes in ten of the fourteen countries and, apart from Germany and the Netherlands, it rose more for females. The proportion declined in Greece. In Austria and France it rose for males and declined for females while the opposite occurred in Spain. In those countries for which variations between 1984-85 and 1985-86 are known, the rise accelerated in New Zealand for both sexes, for women in Finland, Germany and Turkey but declined in Austria, Denmark, Finland and France for men and in Spain for women. A downward trend was reversed in Japan and the Netherlands for both sexes, and also in Germany, Denmark and Turkey for male students. In Austria and France, however, an upward trend for female students was reversed by a decline.

General definitions, reference population and date of population count are given at the end of Chapter 3.

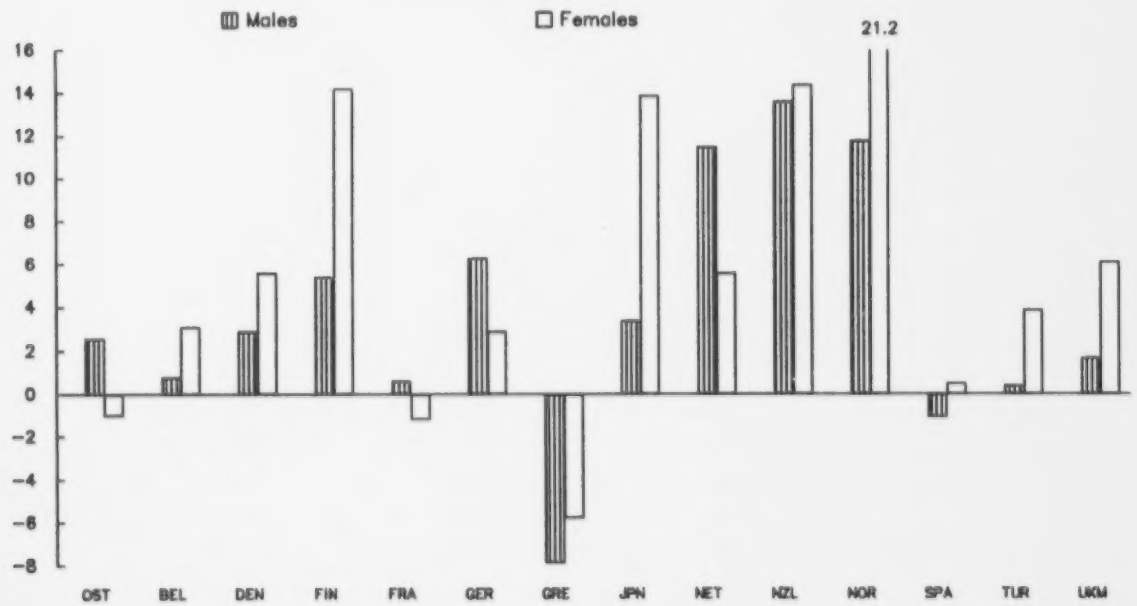
3.2. PROPORTION OF THE AGE GROUP CONCERNED ENTERING THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION

New entrants per thousand persons in the corresponding age group in 1986-87

	Level 5			Level 6			Total		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Australia[a]	154	190	171	318	299	308	389[b]	386[b]	388[b]
Austria	28	54	41	185	184	184	205	232	218
Belgium	..	..	..	..	..	..	392	467	429
Denmark	79	158	117	248	248	248	327	406	365
Finland[c]	208	264	235	163	191	177	375	458	416
France	130	128	129	163	238	200	293	367	329
Germany	81	118	99	202	144	174	284	262	273
Greece	148	150	149	161	200	180	309	350	328
Ireland[d]	..	..	..	..	..	..	285	266	276
Italy	8	10	9	252	235	244	260	246	253
Japan	29	212	118	345	130	240	373	342	358
Netherlands[e]	..	..	..	203	132	168	..	..	..
New Zealand[f]	..	..	..	..	..	..	323	428	376
Norway[g]	..	..	..	160	200	179	..	..	..
Spain	0	0	0	292	316	304	292	316	304
Sweden	456	603	528	144	166	155	594	761	675
Switzerland[e]	330	114	226	144	96	120	483	217	353
Turkey	27	15	21	129	70	101	156	85	122
United Kingdom	159	153	156	191	158	175	350	311	331
United States[e]	301	326	313	301	360	330	602	686	644

a) 1985-86.
b) Number of students enrolled for the first time in a given course at a given institution even if they have been enrolled previously at another institution or in another course. Excluding 606 966 new entrants (of which 49.3 per cent of women) in TAFE (Technical and Further Education) which offers courses of various levels.
c) Full-time only.
d) 1985-86. Full-time only.
e) Universities and Distance-learning universities only.
f) Excluding Technical Correspondence Institutes and Polytechnics/Technical Institutes.
g) Universities only.

Percentage change between 1985-86 and 1986-87 in the proportion of men and women in the age group concerned entering third level education



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Comments

In every country except Switzerland and the United Kingdom, women form a smaller proportion of all students than of new entrants. In Turkey the proportion is virtually the same for both. This may indicate that women are entering third level education in increasing numbers every year, but it is also due to the differences between the sexes as to choice of courses. Generally a higher proportion of female students than male students enrol in level 5 (short courses) and a smaller proportion in level 6 (long courses). This has the effect of reducing women as a proportion of all students. Moreover, it is worth noting that two of the three countries, Switzerland and Turkey, whose women form just as high a proportion of all students, or higher, as of new entrants, were also the only ones with proportionally fewer female enrolments in level 5 than in level 6.

Female students outnumber 49 per cent (approximately their weight in the corresponding population) in nine of the twenty-two countries studied. However, they make up about one-third of the total in Switzerland and Turkey and only very slightly more in Japan.

Between 1985-86 and 1986-87 male enrolments declined in Belgium, the Netherlands and Yugoslavia, whereas female enrolments increased. In the other countries apart from Germany and Norway, the increase was greater for female than for male students.

Few countries were in a position to provide data for the private sector enrolments requested for the first time. Responses suggest a highly varied pattern. The private sector is almost non-existent in Greece and Sweden and small in Italy and Spain. It accounts for over 20 per cent of enrolments in the United States and Denmark, 40 per cent just for the non-university institutions in Austria and Germany, and over 75 per cent in Japan. In Belgium and the Netherlands where the percentage is also very high, especially for universities in Belgium and non-university institutions in the Netherlands, the distinction between public sector and private sector is not very meaningful since both are financed out of public funds. However, the information derived from the questionnaires on which this study is based does not show what each country means by public sector and private sector and what their respective sources of financing are.

Remarks

For general definitions, see the end of Chapter 3.

In some cases the total number of students may not be the same as the sum of levels 5, 6 and 7 students shown in the next section, either because some of them cannot be assigned to a particular level or because the total relates to the number of persons, whereas the figure for each level relates to the number of enrolments (one student may enrol for more than one programme).

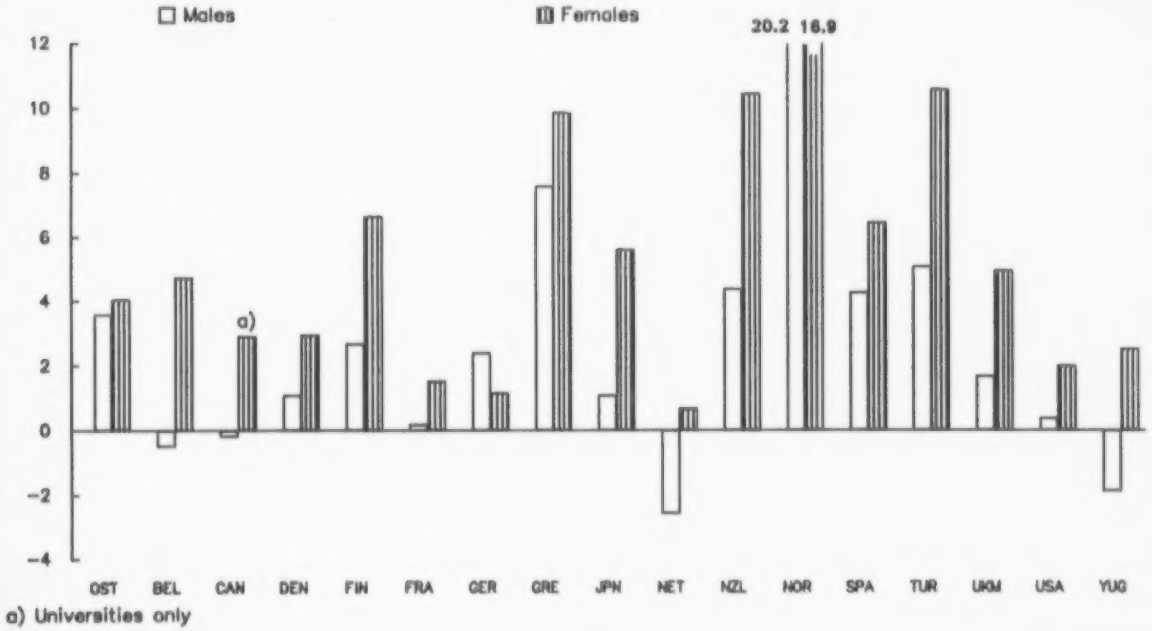
3.3. TOTAL ENROLMENT IN THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION

Number of students in 1986-87 (total full-time and part-time)

	Total	% women	% of students in the private sector
Australia[a]	370 048	47.6	..
Austria	179 909	45.4	40.3[b]
Belgium	252 236	47.0	64.6
Canada	1 245 471	52.9[c]	..
Denmark	118 641	49.8	26.0
Finland[d]	133 933	49.7	..
France	1 289 942	50.6	..
Germany	1 579 085	41.4	40.8[b]
Greece	197 808	49.4	0.4
Ireland[e]	70 301	43.2	..
Italy	1 141 127	46.7	10.0
Japan	2 409 687	35.9	75.8
Netherlands	399 776	41.8	53.0
New Zealand	102 684	47.1	..
Norway	104 246	51.3	..
Portugal[f]	96 919	..	..
Spain	985 374	49.6	9.2
Sweden	183 645	52.2	1.4
Switzerland[e]	110 111	32.1	..
Turkey	502 380	33.4	..
United Kingdom	1 065 386	46.3	..
United States	12 398 000	52.9	22.6[c]
Yugoslavia	350 876	46.9	..

a) 1985-86. Excluding 859 194 students (of which 42.8 per cent women) enrolled in TAFE (Technical and Further Education) which offers courses at various levels.
b) Non-university institutions. No private universities.
c) Universities only.
d) Full-time only.
e) 1985-86.
f) 1985-86, excluding private universities.

Percentage change between 1985-86 and 1986-87 in the number of men and women enrolled in third level education



a) Universities only

Comments

Female participation in higher education varies greatly from one level to another. At level 5 women outnumber men in thirteen of the twenty-one countries (Spain is not taken into account because it has so few students at this level) and represent two-thirds or more of the total in three of those. Compared with 1985-86, the female proportion increased in all countries except France, Germany, Norway and the United States.

At level 6 women are still in the majority in Canada and in Norway more strongly than at level 5, and also in Finland, France, New Zealand (where they are in the minority at level 5) and Spain. In the United States they are in the majority in both levels but more strongly in level 5. Women are in the minority at both levels in Ireland, Switzerland and Turkey but less so at level 6 than at level 5. Between 1985-86 and 1986-87 their proportion at level 6 rose in all the countries.

The female proportion relative to the proportion reported for new entrants is, at level 5, higher in Austria, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom and relatively unchanged in Italy. At level 6 it is higher or equal only in Italy, Spain, Turkey and the United Kingdom. So female students seem less inclined than male students to drop out of level 5, but more inclined to drop out of level 6.

At level 7 women form a much smaller proportion than at level 6, though they do account for over 40 per cent in Canada, Finland, New Zealand and Norway and close to that figure in France. In Ireland and the United-States female and male numbers are equal. In all the countries this proportion is also higher than the 1985-86 figure. For more detailed information on studies at this level, see *Post-Graduate Education in the 1980s*, OECD, Paris 1987.

In countries where part-time education is available the situation is very varied. The proportion of part-time students is close to 75 per cent in New Zealand and the United Kingdom at level 5, exceeds 50 per cent in Australia and the United States for levels 5 and 7, 40 per cent in Switzerland and Yugoslavia for level 5 and, in the United Kingdom, for level 7. One-third or more students are also part-time in Australia at level 6, in Canada at all three levels and in New Zealand at levels 6 and 7.

Remarks

For general definitions, see the end of Chapter 3.

Students in the first cycles of university studies that are part of a longer programme leading to a university first degree are classified as level 6 even if an intermediate qualification is given.

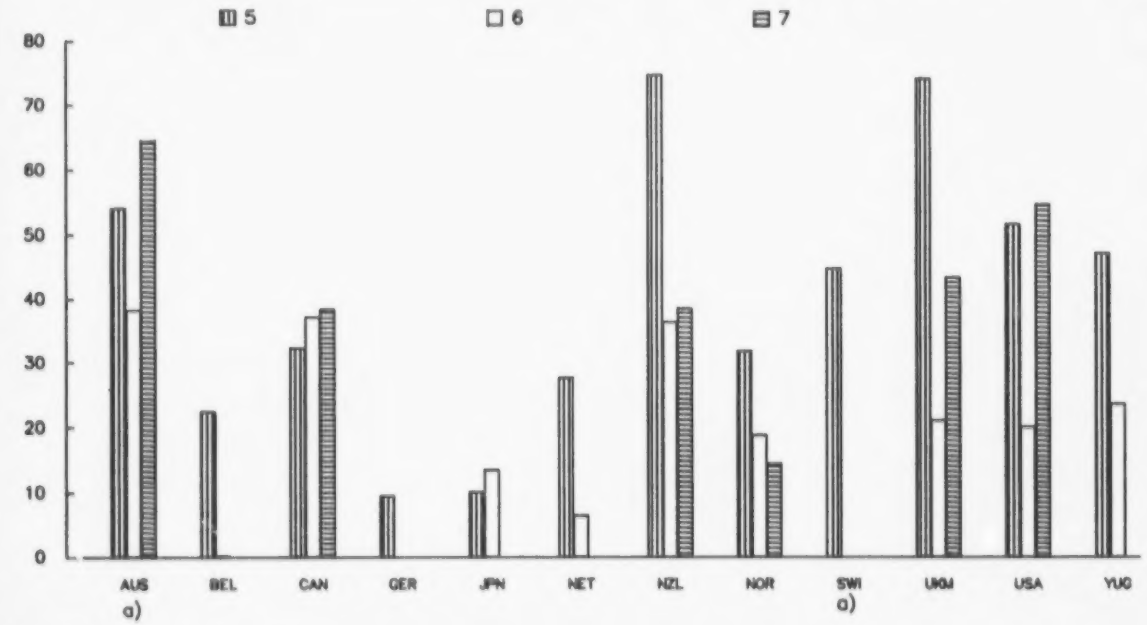
3.4. ENROLMEI N THE DIFFERENT LEVELS OF THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION

Number of students in 1986-87 (total full-time and part-time)

	Level 5		Level 6		Level 7	
	Total	% women	Total	% women	Total	% women
Australia[a]	96 284	54.1	244 407	46.2	26 566	33.0
Austria	13 099	69.0	179 637	43.3	7 162	28.9
Belgium	114 669	56.5	137 567	39.0	included in 6	
Canada	327 267	52.7[b]	825 262	54.3	92 942	43.1
Denmark	26 554	70.2	92 087	43.9	included in 6	
Finland[b]	38 778	47.0	86 715	51.8	8 440	41.1
France	224 076	47.3	904 385	53.6	161 481	39.0
Germany	213 028	64.1	1 366 057	37.9	included in 6	
Greece	81 839	50.4	115 969	48.7	included in 6	
Ireland[c]	18 194	42.6	32 861	47.0	4 033	49.5
Italy	30 160	55.6	1 064 481	47.1	46 486	32.8
Japan	431 622	85.4	1 903 794	25.5	74 271	13.8
Netherlands	209 373	46.0	172 313	37.8	included in 6	
New Zealand	49 186	43.8	49 098	50.9	7 285	42.5
Norway	51 483	51.3	26 477	60.7	26 286	41.8
Portugal[d]	7 313	..	87 548	..	2 058	..
Spain	204	77.0	953 801	50.0	31 369[c]	36.4
Sweden	109 187	57.9	66 842	46.5	12 200	30.1
Switzerland[d]	36 878	26.0	62 103	36.5	11 130	27.8
Turkey	55 767	32.7	425 833	33.5	23 491	33.8
United Kingdom	376 802	51.1	566 625	45.4	124 959	34.9
United States	3 894 000	56.4	6 231 000	51.8	2 398 000	50.0
Yugoslavia	57 806	47.0	293 070	46.9	included in 6	

a) 1985-86, excluding TAFE (Technical and Further Education).
b) Full-time only.
c) 1985-86. Full-time only.
d) 1985-86.

Proportion of part-time students in the different levels of third level education in 1986-87



a) 1985-86

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3. STUDENTS

GENERAL DEFINITIONS

Third level education (or higher education) requires as a minimum condition of admission the successful completion of education at the second level, or evidence of the attainment of an equivalent level of knowledge, or the fulfilment of specific conditions as to age and/or work experience.

Level 5 (or short course) education covers programmes that are generally, but not invariably, dispensed outside the universities and which lead to a *final qualification* below that of a full first university degree.

Level 6 (or long course) education covers programmes leading to award of a full first university degree or an equivalent qualification that allows the student to go on to a programme at level 7.

Level 7 (or postgraduate) education covers programmes that are intended for students who have completed programmes at level 6 and that lead to a postgraduate university degree or equivalent qualification. Some countries do not make a distinction between education at level 6 and education at level 7. In this case all the students have been classified as level 6 – which by definition represents the majority of students.

New entrants are students enrolling for the first time in third level education to take a programme at either level 5 or level 6. Students embarking on courses at level 7 have by definition already completed a programme at level 6 and are naturally not included.

Full-time students or new entrants: students enrolled in programmes *organised* in such a way that they cannot, in principle, exercise another activity even though some of them do, in practice, combine their education with another activity.

Part-time students or new entrants: students enrolled in programmes *organised* in such a way that they are able to undertake another activity either full-time or part-time. There are no part-time students in Austria, Denmark, France and Italy or, at levels 6 and 7, in Belgium, Germany and Switzerland; all students have been considered as full-time even though some of them will not have attended courses regularly or have had another main activity.

The age of the reference population used to calculate the percentage of an age group entering third level education is the average of the ages at which the vast majority of students complete their second level education and are therefore in a position to enrol in third level education. It is therefore only an approximate figure and does not take into account the real age spread of new entrants, and in particular the increased numbers of adult students. See *Adults in Higher Education*, OECD/CERI, Paris 1987.

The date of the population count is 1st January of the academic year concerned, except for Australia and Canada (June), New-Zealand (July), the United Kingdom (end August), Japan, Turkey and the United States (October), Yugoslavia (end March).

Other data available, when provided by the countries.

New entrants and students by type of public or private institution (university or equivalent, distance-learning and non-university), by field of study and by level, and by age and by level. All the data are available separately for full-time and part-time new entrants and students.

4. ENROLMENTS RATES

4. ENROLMENT RATES

Comments

A first glance at the table opposite shows the differences among countries in ages of admission to pre-primary education and the beginning of compulsory education. It also shows that, in all the countries, the closer children are to compulsory schooling the higher the enrolment rates.

In ten of the eighteen countries studied, 2-year-olds are accepted in pre-primary education but, while in certain countries – Austria, Spain, United Kingdom – this is altogether exceptional, to judge from the very low participation rates, in others over 20 per cent of the age group and in France one-third are in pre-primary education.

In all the countries except Canada and Denmark, 3-year-olds can receive pre-primary education but the proportion who do so varies very widely with close to nothing in Ireland, about 4 per cent in the Netherlands and Switzerland to over 95 per cent in France.

For 4-year-olds, the differences between countries are less marked although in Belgium, France and the Netherlands all or nearly all 4-year-olds attend school whereas under half do so in Canada, Greece and Norway, barely half in the United States and about 20 per cent or less in Finland, Switzerland and Yugoslavia.

Five is the age at which compulsory education starts in the United Kingdom while in New Zealand, although the law sets six as the starting age, virtually all 5-year-olds are in first level education. In ten of the other countries, up to two-thirds and more of 5-year-olds attend pre-primary schools but only one-third or less in Finland and Yugoslavia.

At 6 compulsory education has begun in many of the countries and, except for Germany, enrolment rates in pre-primary education are only substantial in those countries where the starting age is 7, country-wide or in certain states or cantons.

There are scarcely any differences between the sexes at any age except in Germany, where there is a slightly higher number of girls than boys enrolled, and at age 6 where in all the countries slightly fewer girls than boys are enrolled. This is probably because girls are generally more mature and that in those countries where compulsory schooling does start at 6, fewer girls than boys stay on a further year in pre-primary education, while in countries where the starting age is 7 more girls receive special permission to enter primary education a year early.

4.1. ENROLMENT RATES IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

Enrolment rates for 1986-87

	Age 2		Age 3		Age 4		Age 5		Age 6	
	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls
Austria	1.2	1.2	29.4	29.2	61.4	61.8	90.4	88.9	23.9	23.1
Belgium	21.1	21.6	94.0	94.3	98.2	98.6	98.9	98.0	2.5	2.0
Canada	–	–	–	–	38.3	38.6	70.0	68.5	10.5	9.8
Denmark	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	96.3	96.2
Finland [a]	21.1	..	16.0	..	20.8	..	26.6	..	90.0	..
France	33.6	33.9	95.4	95.4	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.7	1.5	1.2
Germany	12.6	13.9	38.7	41.0	72.3	72.8	85.5	86.8	68.9	68.4
Greece	–	–	8.9	9.0	43.7	44.5	60.1	60.2	1.1	1.1
Ireland [a]	–	–	0.3	0.3	54.3	55.9	98.9	98.9	50.0	47.6
Japan	–	–	14.8	14.5	53.7	54.2	64.5	65.1	–	–
Netherlands	–	–	4.0	4.2	97.3	97.5	98.5	98.9	–	–
New Zealand [a]	8.4	8.4	40.3	40.9	71.7	71.2	0.7	0.7	–	–
Norway	20.8	..	29.8	..	41.1	..	49.9	..	60.3	..
Spain	4.6	4.4	16.8	17.4	88.3	90.6	100.0	100.0	–	–
Switzerland	–	–	3.8	3.9	16.2	16.2	66.4	66.5	77.8	77.4
United Kingdom	1.3	1.3	25.0	25.2	68.1	68.1	–	–	–	–
United States	–	–	28.9	28.2	49.0	49.8	86.7	85.9	15.0	12.0
Yugoslavia	17.7	17.4	17.4	17.2	21.6	21.4	34.5	34.5	11.9	11.7

a/ 1985-86.

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Comments

Enrolment rates at 15, and to a lesser extent 16, are influenced by the age at which compulsory education ends and the legislation determining at what point pupils reaching that age can leave school, in particular whether they have to complete the current school year or can leave on the actual day they reach the age laid down (for more information see the table at the beginning of the Annex).

90 per cent or more of 15-year-olds attend school in all countries except in Greece, Spain and especially Turkey, where under 50 per cent do so. The great majority are receiving full-time education.

At 16 the enrolment rate is still over 85 per cent in eleven of the nineteen countries and over 80 per cent in two others. In Australia and Greece approximately a quarter have left school, between 30 and 40 per cent in Spain, New Zealand and the United Kingdom and nearly two-thirds in Turkey. In Germany and the United Kingdom over 25 per cent of 16-year-olds attending school are receiving part-time education and in Switzerland nearly 45 per cent.

At 17 the enrolment rate is still above 80 per cent in seven countries and 75 per cent or slightly more in five others. It is between about 50 and 60 per cent in Australia, Greece, Spain and the United Kingdom, slightly above that in Ireland and Yugoslavia, and much lower, 32 per cent, in Turkey. In Germany where nearly all 17-year-olds are receiving education, nearly half are doing so part-time, as are 20 per cent of those still enrolled in Australia, one-third in the United Kingdom and two-thirds in Switzerland.

At age 18 enrolment rates are generally higher in those countries where second level education has not yet been completed than in those in which 18-year-olds have already entered third level education. Three-quarters or more of 18-year-olds are still attending school in Germany and Switzerland, most of them receiving part-time education, over 60 per cent in Denmark, Finland, France, the Netherlands, Norway and the United States. In the other countries, apart from Canada, the rate is under 50 per cent.

At age 19 in certain countries students have already completed short third level programmes while in other countries 19-year-olds are still pursuing secondary studies, especially part-time. Enrolment rates therefore vary extremely widely, from over 50 per cent in Belgium, Denmark, Germany and Switzerland to under 25 per cent in Ireland and Sweden and slightly more in the United Kingdom. The relatively high enrolment rates at ages 18, 19 and 20 in Yugoslavia are explained by the high proportion of pupils following technical and vocational programmes of widely varying durations.

Enrolment rates for women of all ages are higher than for men except in the Netherlands and those countries where part-time education plays an important role, but in those countries women are ahead of men when full-time education is considered separately.

Between 1985-86 and 1986-87 in countries for which the data are comparable, enrolment rates remained more or less the same at ages for which they were very high and in general rose for the other ages.

4.2. ENROLMENT RATES FOR AGES 15-19

Enrolment rates for 1986-87

		Age 15		Age 16		Age 17		Age 18		Age 19	
		Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls
Australia[a]	Total	89.9	90.5	72.7	68.2[b]	50.3	41.8[b]	19.1	6.5[b]	9.8	0.9[b]
of which part-time		–	–	6.0	..	10.4	..	11.8	..	8.8	..
Belgium[c]	Total	94.6	96.5	92.7	95.0	86.4	88.6	68.2	70.8	53.0	55.5
of which part-time		2.4	2.6	3.9	4.0	4.8	4.9	4.9	5.8	5.9	7.5
Canada[d]	Total	98.2	97.9	93.9	94.1	78.5	77.9	54.3	54.0	40.7	42.1
of which part-time		0.0	–	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.0
Denmark	Total	97.1	97.8	89.9	92.3	75.4	76.4	68.0	66.3	52.3	47.2
Finland[e]	Full-time	100.0	100.0	92.1	92.4	83.3	83.0	64.8	72.4	26.4	31.0
France	Total	94.8	96.0	87.9	89.0	79.7	81.1	60.1	63.7	43.0	46.0
of which part-time		0.4	0.3	8.6	4.4	10.3	5.7	4.5	3.1	1.5	1.2
Germany	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.7	96.9	83.9	79.2	57.2	55.8
of which part-time		6.2	5.1	28.4	23.7	48.4	40.9	47.8	39.8	35.0	30.5
Greece[f]	Full-time	85.8	85.2	75.1	76.3	58.7	58.7	43.2	40.7	28.6	29.2
Ireland[f]	Full-time	91.2	93.3	82.0	86.3	64.7	71.5	40.8	46.2	24.1	24.6
Japan[e]	Total	95.5	..	91.9	..	90.5	..	3.1	..	..	..
of which part-time		2.6	..	1.9	..	1.6	..	1.4	..	..	..
Netherlands	Total	99.0	98.7	92.9	92.4	78.3	77.4	60.4	57.5	43.2	38.4
of which part-time		–	–	–	–	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1
New Zealand[g]	Total	92.3	94.2	68.9	71.4	38.8	40.4	23.0	24.9	19.8	22.4
of which part-time		–	–	–	–	1.4	1.3	3.0	3.4	3.2	3.8
Norway	Total	100.0	100.0	86.7	87.7	76.2	77.2	61.6	65.3	30.1	33.3
of which part-time		–	–	0.5	0.3	2.0	0.9	2.2	1.2	2.9	2.4
Spain[e]	Full-time	79.2	76.6	62.3	62.8	53.1	54.5	28.6	28.2	15.0	15.4
Sweden	Full-time	98.2	..	81.0	..	83.0	..	43.3	..	21.7	..
Switzerland[h]	Total	92.0	93.8	85.2	80.6	83.1	76.9	74.5	66.0	50.6	40.9
of which part-time		5.8	4.5	37.6	29.5	56.3	46.2	53.2	41.7	35.7	25.0
Turkey[e]	Full-time	42.4	..	35.9	..	31.5	..	15.4	..	8.5	..
United Kingdom	Total	99.0	99.0	68.9	70.0	49.3	49.0	32.9	30.4	10.8	9.5
of which part-time		–	–	18.9	16.4	16.2	12.7	14.5	12.2	8.8	7.5
United States	Total	98.2	97.4	94.6	94.4	89.0	89.4	60.4	56.5	49.4	49.2
of which part-time		–	–	–	–	0.4	0.5	3.1	3.0	4.4	5.6
Yugoslavia	Total	..	..	..	..	66.3	64.3	72.0	72.0	69.0	73.5
of which part-time		–	–	–	–	–	–	0.6	0.8	1.7	2.4

a) Excluding the third level.
b) Full-time only.
c) Included in part-time education are language courses and courses of a second level-first stage standard.
d) Excluding 103 655 part-time students in Community Colleges who cannot be distributed by age.
e) At the third level, universities only.
f) 1985-86.
g) 1985-86 for the second level.
h) 1985-86 for the third level.

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Comments

Although in most countries by age 20 there are normally no students still enrolled in full-time second level general education, this is not the case for vocational/technical education, particularly when it is part-time. It plays a less important role at this age but is still attended by a varying though not insignificant proportion of this age. The figures also include those enrolled in part-time third level education. In certain countries higher studies, particularly level 5 (preparing for a qualification of a level below that of a university first degree), are already completed. Because of this, an equivalent enrolment rate may conceal a wide variety of situations, both for this and for subsequent ages.

At age 20 one-third or slightly more of the cohort are still enrolled in Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Germany, the United States and also in Yugoslavia (see the preceding section). A relatively small proportion, under 20 per cent, are still enrolled in Ireland, New Zealand and especially Sweden. For Sweden it is noteworthy that, unlike other countries, both the total rate and the female rate increase from ages 20 to 23, indicating that a proportion of these students have deferred their entry into third level education, as the authorities encourage them to do by giving some degree of priority of admission to students with a certain amount of work experience.

From age 21 onwards enrolment rates drop sharply year by year except in Sweden, as mentioned above, and in Germany where, after declining appreciably between ages 20 and 21, largely owing to the sharp reduction in the number of pupils attending part-time second level education, rates rise at age 22 for total enrolments but not for the female rate, indicating that a number of students have preferred to do their military service before entering higher education.

At age 24 enrolment rates exceed 10 per cent only in the United States, Canada and Belgium (where a relatively high proportion are taking part-time general courses of varying levels which elsewhere would be treated as adult education rather than regular education) and in those countries where third level education begins at a relatively later age and continues over an extended period.

As regards female and male participation, three sets of countries can be distinguished. In the first, represented by Finland, France and Norway, and also Denmark except at age 20, female rates are higher than or equal to those for total enrolments and therefore for male enrolments. In the second set, Greece, Ireland, the Netherlands, Switzerland and Yugoslavia male enrolment rates are higher. In the third group, Belgium, Canada, Germany, New Zealand, Sweden and the United States, young women are relatively over-represented up to age 21 or 22 and under-represented thereafter.

Between 1985-86 and 1986-87 rates generally rose or remained largely unchanged at all ages, except for declines in Belgium (for all ages) in Germany (23 and 24 age group) and in the United States (20- and 21-year-olds).

4.3. ENROLMENT RATES FOR AGES 20-24

Enrolment rates for 1986-87

		Age 20		Age 21		Age 22		Age 23		Age 24	
		Total	Females	Total	Females	Total	Females	Total	Females	Total	Females
Belgium [a]	Total	46.0	48.3	28.2	28.6	22.5	22.3	16.5	16.0	12.0	11.5
of which part-time		7.4	9.1	8.2	9.7	9.6	11.2	9.3	10.3	8.4	9.0
Canada [b]	Total	36.3	35.8	23.4	24.0	19.3	18.7	13.9	12.8	10.4	9.4
of which part-time		1.3	1.6	1.9	2.2	2.8	3.3	3.0	3.5	2.7	3.4
Denmark	Total	36.4	32.4	28.4	28.7	24.1	26.0	21.8	23.0	20.0	20.6
Finland [c]	Full-time	22.4	31.3	23.7	30.6	21.6	25.5	18.3	20.6	17.6	18.8
France	Total	28.1	29.2	19.4	19.8	13.6	14.0	10.0	10.2	7.3	7.2
of which part-time		0.7	0.7	0.0	0.0	–	–	–	–	–	–
Germany	Total	36.6	38.5	25.6	26.1	28.3	24.7	16.8	13.6	15.4	11.5
of which part-time		19.5	18.5	9.7	9.8	11.5	9.5	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.1
Greece [d]	Full-time	29.0	28.6	15.6	14.4	12.2	9.7	10.3	9.4	9.3	8.8
Ireland [d]	Full-time	17.6	16.8	10.8	9.5	6.6	5.4	3.7	2.6	2.0	1.5
Netherlands	Total	31.9	26.3	23.2	18.3	17.7	13.9	13.7	10.3	11.1	8.1
of which part-time		0.2	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.8	1.0	0.9	1.3	1.1
New Zealand [e]	Total	16.1	17.4	12.8	12.6	9.6	9.1	7.5	6.7	5.9	5.3
of which part-time		3.0	3.4	3.4	3.8	3.6	4.2	3.7	3.5	3.5	3.2
Norway	Total	23.4	27.8	24.0	26.1	24.1	25.7	20.6	24.3	18.2	17.0
of which part-time		2.8	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.9	2.4	2.7	2.5	2.7	2.3
Sweden	Full-time	9.5	11.3	11.3	13.1	12.4	13.1	12.5	12.3	11.4	10.7
Switzerland [f]	Total	30.2	26.7	20.1	17.9	16.9	13.2	15.0	10.3	13.0	8.4
of which part-time		15.1	11.9	6.5	6.3	4.2	3.6	3.3	2.3	2.8	1.6
United Kingdom	Total	23.8	22.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
of which part-time		9.9	10.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
United States	Total	35.7	34.3	29.8	30.0	24.7	23.6	16.2	15.3	13.1	12.2
of which part-time		3.8	3.8	5.1	6.0	5.6	5.8	5.5	5.9	5.5	5.4
Yugoslavia	Total	47.3	47.8	18.1	15.8	12.8	10.9	10.1	7.0	6.4	4.2
of which part-time		2.0	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.1	2.4	2.0	2.2	1.7

a) Included in part-time education are language courses and courses of a second level-first stage standard.
b) Excluding 103 655 part-time students in Community Colleges who cannot be distributed by age.
c) At the third leve, universities only.
d) 1985-86.
e) 1985-86 for the second level.
f) 1985-86 for the third level.

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5. QUALIFICATIONS

5. QUALIFICATIONS

General remarks on Chapter 5

The reference year for enrolments is the academic year, spanning two calendar years (e.g. 1986-87), except in Australia and New Zealand. For qualifications, however, the reference year is the year in which they are awarded (usually at the end of the academic year). For example, 1986 refers to those qualifying at the end of the 1985-86 academic year.

Comments

The diploma or certificate awarded at the end of the second level-first stage, which often represents the end of compulsory education for many young people, is mainly intended to enable those leaving the system at this point to prove that they have acquired a certain stock of knowledge. In some countries this qualification gives access to *junior level civil service* examinations.

Now that the great majority of young people are continuing their education beyond the compulsory period, this qualification has lost some of its importance and a number of countries have made it optional or done away with it altogether. The point should nevertheless be made that achievement at second level-first stage education does still very often have a major bearing on the particular type of education or stream a pupil will follow in the second stage.

The percentage of girls among second level-first stage qualifiers is very much the same as their percentage of total enrolment in this stage of education (a difference of less than 1 percentage point) in Austria, Finland, Germany, Japan, Norway, and Spain. It is noticeably higher (about 3 percentage points) in France and Turkey (where the figure itself is very low) but between 2 and 3 percentage points lower in Denmark, Greece and the Netherlands.

The probable explanation is that, in the first group of countries, girls and boys pass through the system in very similar ways and have much the same attitude towards the second level-first stage examination, while, in the second group, either fewer girls drop out or more of them sit the examination where it is not compulsory and, in the third group of countries, the pattern is reversed.

Between 1985 and 1986 the number gaining qualifications fell back in Austria and Germany, more strongly than between 1984 and 1985. The rise accelerated in Japan and slowed down in Spain. In Denmark, the Netherlands and Yugoslavia an upturn replaced the downturn. In Finland and Turkey, for which no figures were available for the 1984 and 1985 trend, a downturn was reported for Finland and a strong upturn for Turkey.

For the definition of second level-first stage, see the end of Chapter 1.

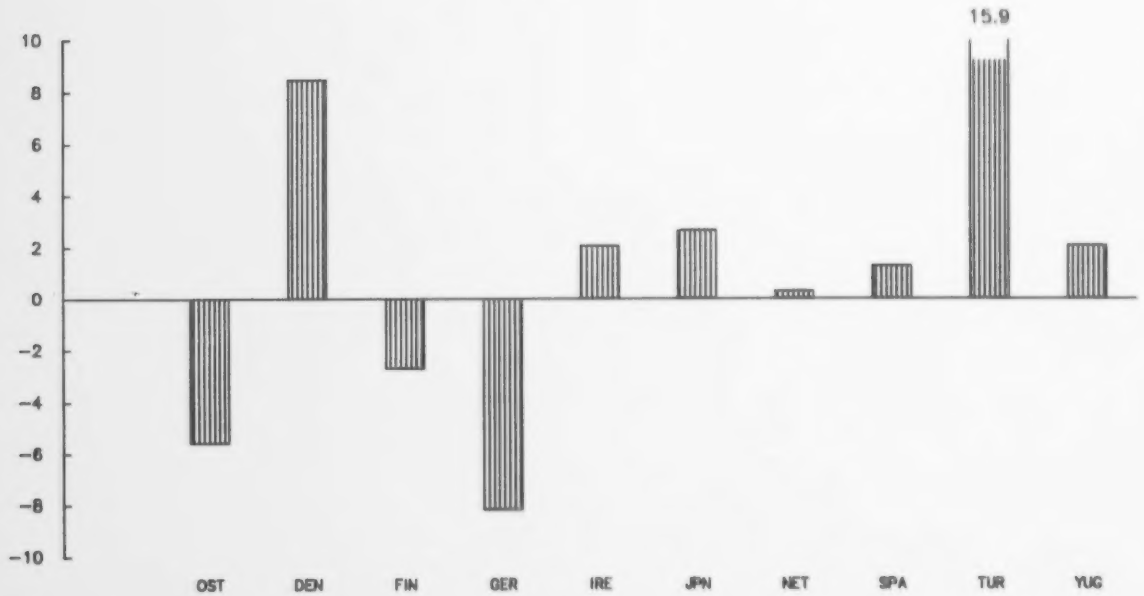
5.1. QUALIFICATIONS IN SECOND LEVEL-FIRST STAGE EDUCATION

Number qualifying in 1986

	Total	% girls
Austria	97 655	48.9
Belgium	154 724	50.0
Denmark	17 442	46.4
Finland	63 627	49.0
France[a]	378 569	53.2
Germany	760 013	48.7
Greece[b]	118 582	45.4
Ireland	57 869	..
Japan	1 933 616	48.8
Netherlands	172 784	46.0
Norway[b]	67 162	48.8
Spain	678 271	49.3
Turkey	394 755	37.5
Yugoslavia	318 732	..

a) The recent creation of the "Brevet des Collèges", that all pupils must sit in the last year of the second level-first cycle, makes comparisons with previous years impossible.
b) 1985.

Percentage change between 1985 and 1986 in the number of second level-first stage qualifications awarded



5. QUALIFICATIONS

Comments

In view of the diversity of the diplomas and certificates awarded at the end of the different types of *second level-second stage* education, an attempt has been made to distinguish between those allowing access to third level education and those leading directly to working life.

A "traditional" type of secondary school-leaving certificate is still in most cases a *necessary* requirement for admission to university level education, although some population categories without the certificate (adults, ethnic minorities, etc.) are nowadays entitled to apply.

But this is becoming less and less of a *sufficient* condition. Some faculties may require applicants to have completed a certain course or obtained certain grades, or may have introduced a *numerus clausus*, while some universities themselves select applicants.

It should also be noted that in the European countries admission to non-university institutions is subject to more or less restrictive requirements, whereas in the non-European Member countries access is much more open than to university. For a detailed discussion of the conditions of access to higher education in OECD Member countries, see *Policies for Higher Education in the 1980s*, OECD, Paris 1983.

Among those obtaining qualifications at the end of second level-second stage education giving access to third level education (and among all obtaining qualifications for the countries mentioned in the opposite table), women are in most countries over-represented in general education and more so than in enrolments. They account for over 60 per cent in Denmark, Finland and Yugoslavia. They are under-represented only in Turkey and also in Germany, where they account for a smaller proportion of numbers qualifying than of total enrolments.

The pattern is less consistent for vocational/technical education. Women are under-represented in Austria, Japan, Spain, Turkey, the United Kingdom and Yugoslavia to a greater extent than they are among enrolments, except in Japan and Turkey. In the remaining countries they are in the majority (level with men in the Netherlands) and they account for a higher proportion of qualifiers than they do of total enrolments.

Between 1985 and 1986 the numbers receiving the second level-second stage qualification rose in Greece, Spain, Turkey, and also in Australia and France, more strongly than between 1984 and 1985. In Japan and the Netherlands an upturn followed a downturn. A decline continued in Germany and reversed rises in Austria, Denmark, the United Kingdom, and in Yugoslavia the increase was much the same.

For technical/vocational education, the increase noted between 1984 and 1985 accelerated in Austria, France, Spain, Turkey and Yugoslavia and declines were reversed by increases in Denmark and Japan. A decline continued in the United Kingdom, while in the Netherlands a decline reversed a strong upturn.

For the definitions of the different types of second level-second stage education, see the end of Chapter 1 and for general remarks pertaining to qualifications, see the beginning of Section 5.1.

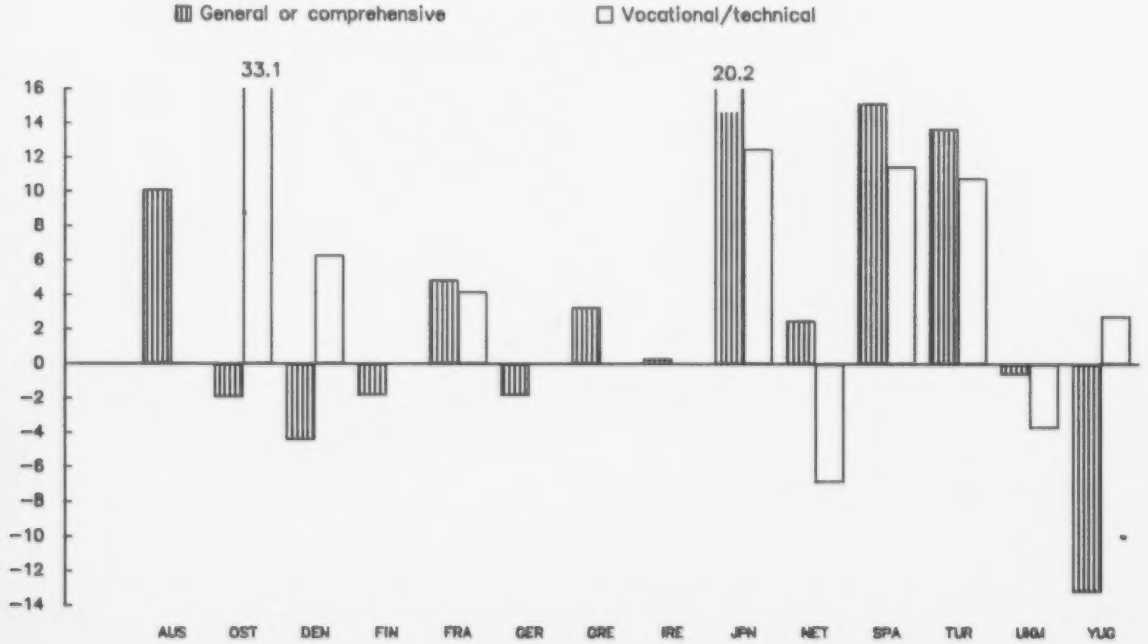
5.2. QUALIFICATIONS IN SECOND LEVEL-SECOND STAGE EDUCATION

Number qualifying in 1986

	Qualifications allowing access to third level education				Other qualifications	
	General or comprehensive		Vocational/technical			
	Total	% women	Total	% women	Total	% women
Australia [a]	128 112	52.4	–	–	–	–
Austria	16 984	34.1	14 082	46.1	27 735	36.6
Belgium	28 637	54.7	29 627	52.5	17 497	57.3
Denmark	18 939	63.7	36 327 [b]	63.6	19 333	18.8
Finland	31 050	62.3	–	–	52 063	55.2
France	178 918	57.3	93 253	53.4	398 486	48.1
Germany	284 972	47.3	–	–	–	–
Greece	73 842	57.3	–	–	28 371	33.2
Ireland	47 857 [c]	..	–	–	–	–
Japan	1 166 032	51.6	454 393	47.3	–	–
New Zealand	21 845	..	–	–	46 837	..
Netherlands	74 104	51.7	63 942 [b]	49.3	..	..
Spain	164 140	55.5	69 846	47.4	109 919	49.2
Turkey	130 145 [b]	45.6	96 523 [b]	28.8	–	–
United Kingdom [d]	254 400	51.3	76 200	40.8	517 500	49.4
United States	2 683 000	50.9 [e]	–	–	–	–
Yugoslavia	22 691	60.5	238 028 [b]	44.4	–	–

a) Estimates. Excluding Technical and Further Education (TAFE).
b) Including those awarded qualifications not allowing access to third level education.
c) Total number of pupils who take the exam. All of them get a certificate showing the marks obtained in each subject.
d) School-leavers with at least 5 A-C awards at General Certificate of Education (GCE) O-level or equivalent (classified as "general") or a BTEC (Business and Technical Education Council) ordinary certificate and diploma (classified as "vocational/technical") are considered as eligible for third level education. School-leavers with less than 5 A-C awards at GCE are classified as "other".
e) 1985.

Percentage change between 1985 and 1986 in the number of qualifications awarded allowing access to third level education



Comments

Although the table opposite includes only 15 countries and, for four of those, qualifications giving access to third level cannot be distinguished from qualifications which do not; it does nevertheless highlight the major differences between countries in the selection process that operates during secondary education.

Three sets of countries can be distinguished. In the first, Japan, the United States (and Canada referring to the 1984 data, the latest available), three-quarters or more of the age group obtain a secondary school-leaving certificate giving access, at least in theory, to third level education. The proportion is also high in Denmark, the Netherlands and Yugoslavia, but in those three countries some unknown percentage of technical and vocational certificates are school-leaving qualifications and do not give access to third level education.

In the second set, represented by Australia, Finland and Greece, the proportion is between 40 and 50 per cent. In the third set, secondary school-leaving certificate holders are very much a minority within their age group. In Austria and Germany the proportion is not even 30 per cent and in Turkey it is only slightly over 20 per cent.

In every country with the exception of Germany and Turkey, more women than men in the same age group obtain a general upper secondary leaving certificate, and the difference is sometimes substantial, about 50 per cent in Greece, 60 per cent in Yugoslavia, 70 per cent in Finland and 85 per cent in Denmark. In Germany and Turkey where the proportion is higher for men, the difference is very low, under 10 per cent.

The proportion gaining qualifications from technical/vocational education is higher for women than for men in Belgium, Denmark, France and the Netherlands, but the gap is relatively narrow except in Denmark where it is 90 per cent. In the other countries, where a higher proportion of men than women obtain such qualifications, the gap is in general wider, with nearly 40 per cent more men qualifying in the United Kingdom and proportionally more than twice as many in Turkey.

For the definition of the reference population and date of population count, see the end of Chapter 5.

5.3. PROPORTION OF THE AGE GROUP CONCERNED OBTAINING A SECOND-LEVEL STAGE QUALIFICATION ALLOWING ACCESS TO THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION

Number qualifying per thousand persons in the corresponding age group, in 1986

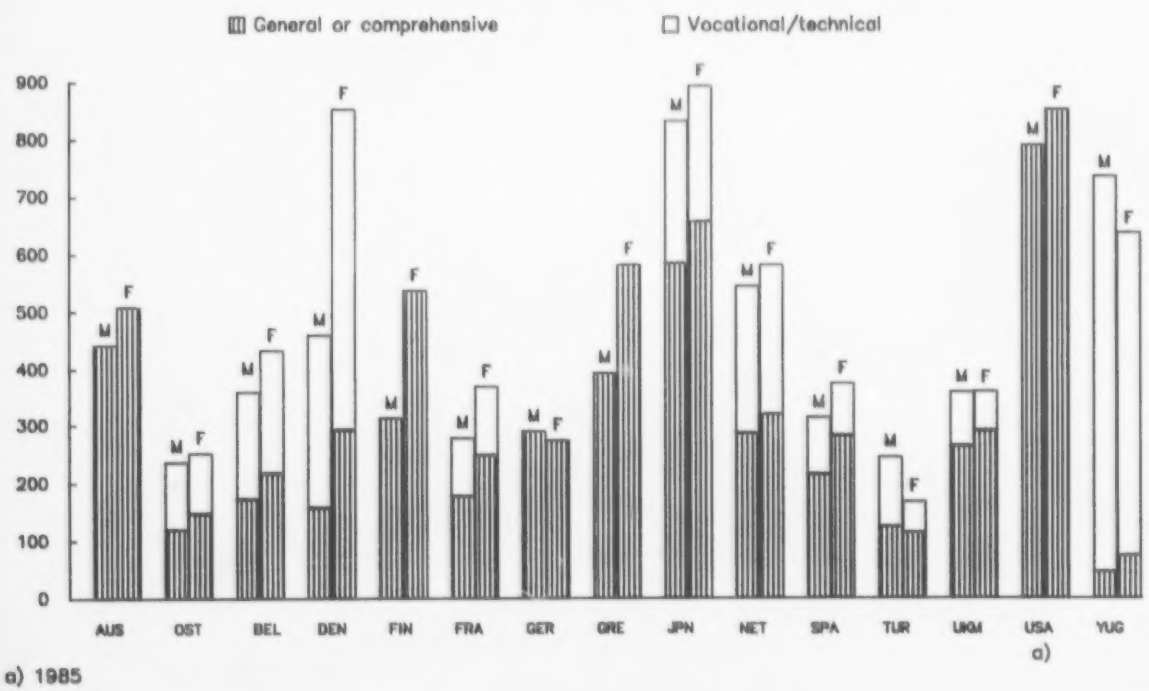
	Age group	General or comprehensive	Vocational/ technical	Total
Australia[a]	17	476	–	476
Austria	18-19	134	111	245
Belgium	18-19	195	201	396
Denmark	19-20	224	429[b]	653[b]
Finland	19-20	424	–	424
France	18-19	213	111	324
Germany	19-20	284	–	284
Greece	17-18	485	–	485
Japan	17-18	623	243	865
Netherlands	18-19	303	262[b]	565[b]
New Zealand	18-19	366	–	366
Spain	18-19	248	96	345
Turkey	18-19	120[b]	89[b]	209[b]
United Kingdom[c]	18-19	278	83	361
United States	17-18	746	–	746
Yugoslavia	19-20	60	631[b]	691[b]

a/ Estimates. Excluding Technical and Further Education (TAFE).

b/ Including those awarded qualifications not allowing access to third level education.

c/ School-leavers with at least 5 A-C awards at General Certificate of Education (GCE) O-level or equivalent (classified as "general") or a BTEC (Business and Technical Education Council) ordinary certificate and diploma (classified as "vocational/technical") are considered as eligible for third-level education.

Comparison between the proportion of boys and the proportion of girls in the age group concerned obtaining a second level-second stage qualification in 1986 allowing access to third level education (‰)



a) 1985

5. QUALIFICATIONS

Comments

There are differences across countries in the organisation of higher education programmes, particularly those in universities. In some, there is no major hurdle for the student to negotiate before the final degree. In others, studies are divided into cycles and the student has to pass a recognised diploma terminating one cycle before moving on to the next. For the same number of students, therefore, the total number of qualifications awarded is higher in the latter case than in the former.

Women are a majority and often a very clear majority of level 5 qualifiers in all the countries except the Netherlands, where they rank equal with men, and in Turkey where they are only 35 per cent. At level 6 women are in the majority in only six countries, Canada, Finland, Greece, Norway, Spain, and the United States; in Yugoslavia the two sexes are equally represented. In Japan women account for only a quarter of level 6 qualifications (as against nearly 90 per cent at level 5). At level 7 the female proportion declines sharply, to under 25 per cent in Austria, Germany, Switzerland and 11 per cent in Japan. Women do however account for 40-45 per cent in Canada, France and the United States and more than 50 per cent in Ireland.

Women are more highly represented among qualifiers than among enrollers at level 5 except in Belgium, Denmark and Germany (the extreme case being Switzerland where at level 5, women make up 26 per cent of enrolments and 53.5 per cent of those qualifying). At level 6 the same pattern is found only in Australia, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece and Turkey with very narrow gaps. In Spain the gap is wider, because of the fact that Spain has little or no level 5 so that level 6 contains programmes which would elsewhere form part of level 5. At level 7, proportionally fewer women qualify than enrol except in France, Ireland, Italy and Turkey. This seems to confirm the hypothesis put forward in Section 3.4. that women are less inclined to abandon short-course studies, but more inclined to abandon long-course studies.

Between 1985 and 1986 the number of level 5 qualifiers increased in the United States, remained more or less the same in New Zealand and in the United Kingdom, fell back in Belgium very sharply and also in Germany and Norway. During the same period, compared with the 1984-1985 trend, upturns accelerated in Finland, France and Turkey, while an upturn reversed the downturn in Denmark. The Netherlands had a stronger downturn but previous downturns in Canada and Japan were reversed by upturns. At level 6 the increase continued in France and Spain where it slowed down and in Turkey where it accelerated. Declines in Belgium, Finland and Japan were reversed by rises, while in Canada and the Netherlands increases continued at the same pace. However, rises in Austria and New Zealand were reversed by falls. Between 1985 and 1986 the number increased in Germany and Greece, but declined in Norway, the United Kingdom and the United States.

The number of level 7 qualifiers rose between 1985 and 1986 in Canada and Japan, more strongly than between 1984 and 1985, also less strongly in Austria, at appreciably the same pace in Spain and it also rose in Turkey reversing a downward trend. Between the two periods upward trends were reversed by downturns in Finland and France. Between 1985 and 1986 downturns were also reported for Norway and New Zealand, but upturns for the United Kingdom and the United States.

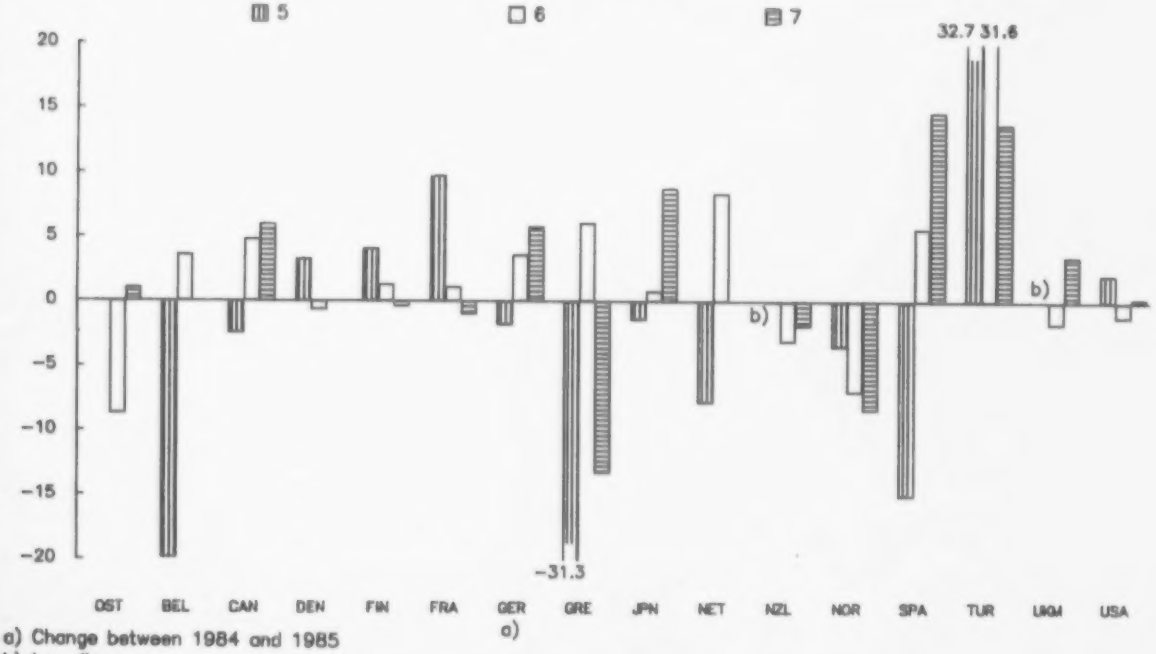
5.4. QUALIFICATIONS IN THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION

Number qualifying in 1986

	Level 5		Level 6		Level 7	
	Total	% women	Total	% women	Total	% women
Australia [a]	24 887	58.3	44 349	47.8	4 327	28.8
Austria	4 783	73.1	9 001	39.3	683	24.2
Belgium	24 915	54.4	23 711	38.9	included in 6	
Canada	59 768	54.9	118 905	53.9	19 808	42.3
Denmark	8 682	66.1	10 209	45.1	included in 6	
Finland	12 667	52.4	9 036	52.3	717	27.9
France	126 774	53.0	133 319	48.9	52 003	40.4
Germany [b]	83 317	63.7	131 969	38.2	14 951	24.1
Greece	7 732	56.2	16 303	51.1	591	32.5
Ireland [c]	616	54.9	6 715	44.3	2 905	51.2
Italy	4 289	59.9	72 970	45.8	12 560	35.9
Japan	183 451	87.9	378 667	25.0	23 547	11.6
Netherlands	41 190	49.4	17 541	33.0	included in 6	
New Zealand [d]	2 303	57.7	6 322	43.2	2 649	37.0
Norway [e]	23 676	57.4	10 012	60.3	4 562	32.2
Spain	822	57.1	96 294	54.5	2 868	34.2
Switzerland [b]	962	53.5	6 203	32.6	2 938	22.4
Turkey	14 551	35.5	43 297	34.6	3 250	34.6
United Kingdom	117 295	54.1	137 075	44.4	42 526	37.0
United States	466 279	53.9	968 203	51.7	395 518	45.9
Yugoslavia	21 555	52.0	28 227	49.6	3 022	29.5

a) 1985. Excluding Technical and Further Education (TAFE). The classification followed not being the same as for the previous years, any comparison is misleading.
b) 1985.
c) 1985. Universities and equivalent institutions only. The data are not comparable with those of the previous years which covered only a part of these institutions.
d) Universities and teacher training colleges only.
e) The relatively high number of qualifications obtained derives from the frequency with which Norwegian students gain several qualifications during the same year.

Percentage change between 1985 and 1986 in the number qualifying at the different levels of third level education



a) Change between 1984 and 1985
b) Low figure

Comments

Leaving aside level 7 qualifiers, who in principle must already hold a university first degree, and considering that very few students obtain more than one qualification in the same year (except in Norway, especially at level 5, which is therefore excluded from this analysis) it can be seen that in 1986 (or in 1985) one-third or more of a cohort obtained a level 5 or 6 qualification in Canada, Japan and the United States. The proportion was between 25 and 30 per cent in Australia, Finland, France and the United Kingdom, but under 15 per cent in Austria, Ireland, Spain and Yugoslavia and 10 per cent in Italy, Switzerland and Turkey. A certain number of level 5 and 6 qualifiers will pursue their studies and reappear in the figures for level 6 and 7 qualifiers some years later.

At level 5 the proportion of qualifiers was higher than the level 6 proportion in Finland, Belgium and the Netherlands (levels 6 and 7), exceeding 15 per cent. At level 6 that percentage was exceeded in Australia and France, and, particularly, in Canada, Japan and the United States but it was relatively low in Austria, Italy, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Turkey and Yugoslavia. Nearly 10 per cent of a cohort obtained a level 7 qualification in the United States and between 4 and 6 per cent in Canada, France, Ireland, New Zealand and the United Kingdom.

Between 1985 and 1986, for those countries which can be compared, the proportion rose for all levels except in Belgium for level 5, in Denmark, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States for level 6, and in Italy for level 7.

In all the countries except Turkey, more women than men of the same cohort obtained a level 5 qualification, nearly twice as many in Germany and over seven times as many in Japan. At level 6, apart from Canada, Finland, Greece and Spain, the proportion for men was higher than for women but the gap was narrower, although it did amount to 2:1 in the Netherlands and nearly 3:1 in Japan. The proportion was much the same for both sexes in Australia, France and the United States. At level 7 women were marginally behind men in all the countries, lagging 25 per cent in the United States while the ratio was nearly 9:1 in Japan.

For the definition of the different levels of third level, see the end of Chapter 3 and for general remarks pertaining to qualifications, see the beginning of Section 5.1.

Some countries make no distinction between level 6 and level 7 qualifications; all qualifications have been classified at level 6 which, by definition, represents the majority.

Qualifications awarded at the end of a first cycle of university studies, which is in principle only one stage in the process of obtaining a full university first degree, are classified as level 5 and not as level 6.

Note that for France, the "maîtrises" which can be prepared for either directly in four years of study at university level or in one year following the "licence" are, like the "licence", included in level 6.

For the definition of the reference population and date of population count, see the end of Chapter 5.

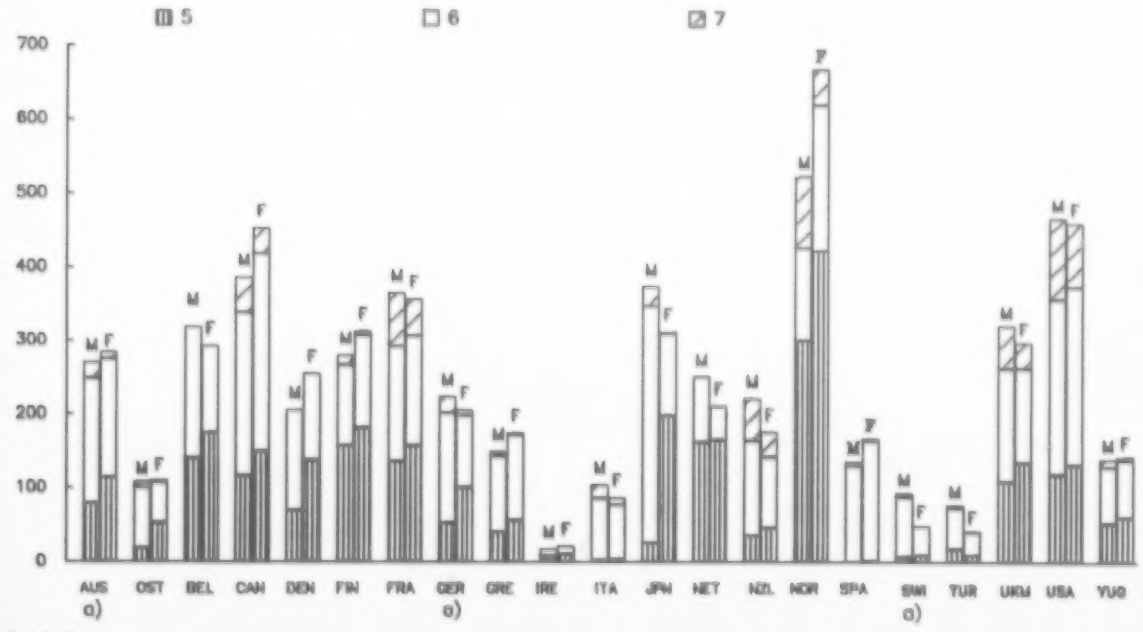
5.5. PROPORTION OF THE AGE GROUP CONCERNED OBTAINING A THIRD LEVEL QUALIFICATION

Number qualifying per thousand persons in the corresponding age group in 1986

	Level 5		Level 6		Level 7	
	Age group	Number	Age group	Number	Age group	Number
Australia [a]	19	97	21	165	23	16
Austria	20-21	36	22-23	68	24-25	5
Belgium	20-21	158	22-23	149		included in 6
Canada	20-21	133	22-23	245	24-25	41
Denmark	21-22	103	23-24	127		included in 6
Finland	21-22	170	23-24	118	25-26	9
France	20-21	147	22-23	153	24-25	62
Germany [b]	21-22	77	23-24	124	25-26	15
Greece	19-20	49	21-22	109	23-24	4
Ireland [c]	19-20	10	21-22	108	23-24	52
Italy	21-22	4	23-24	79	24-25	14
Japan	20-21	111	22-23	219	24-25	15
Netherlands	20-21	165	22-23	68		included in 6
New Zealand [d]	20-21	41	22-23	112	24-25	45
Norway [e]	21-22	383	23-24	161	25-26	73
Spain	20-21	1	22-23	147	24-25	5
Switzerland [b]	21-22	9	23-24	61	25-26	3
Turkey	20-21	14	22-23	44	24-25	4
United Kingdom	20-21	123	22-23	142	24-25	46
United States	20-21	127	22-23	241	24-25	97
Yugoslavia	21-22	58	23-24	77	25-26	8

a) 1985. Excluding Technical and Further Education (TAFE). The classification followed not being the same as for the previous years, any comparison is misleading.
b) 1985.
c) 1985. Universities and equivalent institutions only. The data are not comparable with those of the previous years which covered only a part of these institutions.
d) Universities and teacher training colleges only.
e) The relatively high number of qualifications obtained derives from the frequency with which Norwegian students obtain several qualifications during the same year.

Comparison between the proportion of men and the proportion of women in the age group concerned obtaining a third level qualification in 1986 (‰)



a) 1985

5. QUALIFICATIONS

GENERAL DEFINITIONS

The age of the reference population used to calculate the percentage of an age group obtaining a second level-second stage qualification allowing access to third level education is the average of the ages at which the vast majority of students complete their second level education and are therefore in a position to enrol in third level education.

To calculate the percentage of an age group obtaining a third level qualification, *two years for level 5, four years for level 6 and six years for level 7* have been added to the ages taken for reference in order to obtain for each level an average age. The percentages are therefore only approximate figures and do not take into account the real age spread of those obtaining qualifications.

The date of the population count is 1st January of the academic year concerned, except for Australia and Canada (June), New Zealand (July), the United Kingdom (end August), the United States, Japan and Turkey (October), Yugoslavia (end March).

6. EXPENDITURE

6. EXPENDITURE

General remarks on Chapter 6

The figures quoted in Sections 6.1 and 6.2 are derived from different tables in the questionnaire and do not correspond for all countries, mainly because Table 6.2 includes some expenditure which cannot be broken down between public and private education. However, the figures quoted in Sections 6.2 and 6.3 are derived from the same tables.

Comments

When each country's expenditure on education is measured as a percentage of Gross Domestic Product, that percentage can be seen to vary considerably. It is very low in Turkey and Greece and, to a lesser extent, in Portugal and Yugoslavia. It is relatively low, under 5 per cent, in Germany and New Zealand and not much higher in Switzerland. Conversely, it is over 7 per cent in Sweden, Canada and Denmark. But allowance must be made here for the wide disparities in per capita Gross Domestic Product among OECD Member countries, undoubtedly influencing the proportion that can be allocated to education.

The share of private expenditure, for countries able to provide the data, in total expenditure on education is not very high, under 10 per cent, except in France (16 per cent), Japan (21 per cent), and the United States (26 per cent). But in considering these data it must be borne in mind that the information in the questionnaire replies does not show whether or not they cover total private expenditure.

The decline in the share of GDP allocated to expenditure on education noted between 1984 and 1985 continued between 1985 and 1986. It accelerated in Australia, Belgium, France, Germany and Turkey and slowed down in Sweden and Switzerland. The rise reversed a downward trend in Canada, Norway, and Portugal and continued in Finland, Ireland, New Zealand and Yugoslavia.

For public expenditure, the share rose only in Austria, Canada, Greece, Ireland, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal and Yugoslavia. Private expenditure rose in all the countries for which data are available, apart from Germany and Japan, and also Switzerland where it remained more or less the same, and Greece where it declined.

The relative decline of public expenditure on education together with the rise in private expenditure suggest that in response to budget constraints and rising government expenditure on other groups, such as the unemployed, the elderly, the handicapped, etc., a larger share of education costs is being left to private initiative.

For general definitions, see the end of Chapter 6.

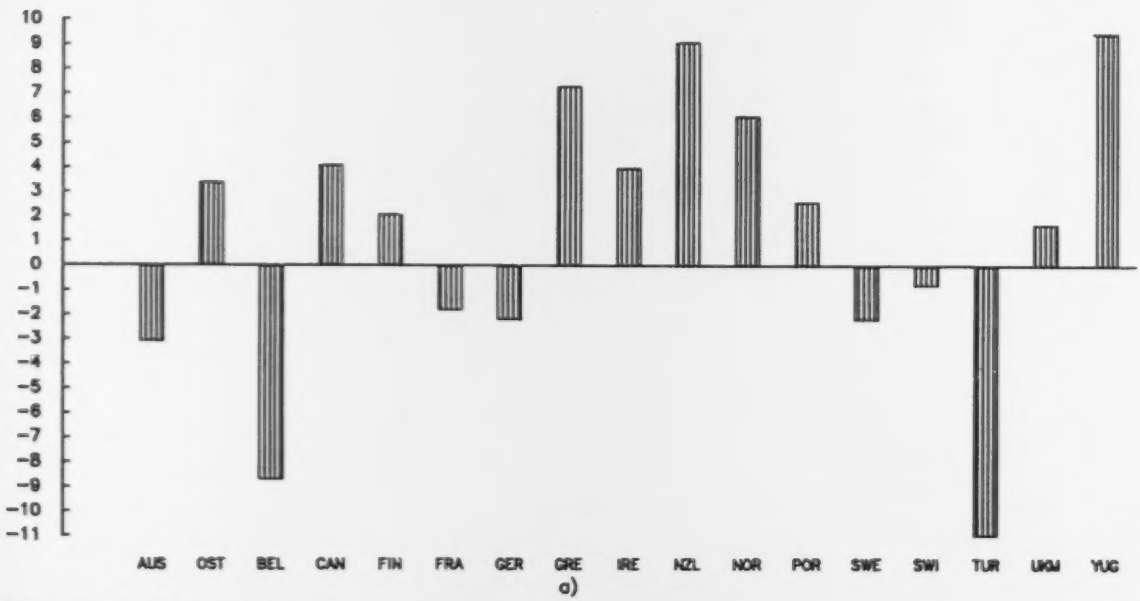
6.1. TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION (by sources)

Expenditure[a] in 1986 (in local currency and at current prices)

	Public sources (million)	Private sources (million)	Percentage of GDP		
			Public sources	Private sources	Total
Australia	43 788.0	985.0	5.27	0.38	5.65
Austria	85 814.8	..	6.03	..	..
Belgium[b]	277 235.3	..	5.42	..	..
Canada	33 331.5	3 055.7	6.64	0.61	7.24
Denmark	47 592.0	685.0	7.17	0.10	7.27
Finland	18 859.8	1 748.2	5.23	0.49	5.72
France	281 274.0	51 853.0	5.59	1.03	6.62
Germany	83 191.0	3 135.0	4.31	0.16	4.47
Greece[c]	133 090.8	9 224.9	2.88	0.20	3.08
Ireland	1 092.1	51.4	5.89	0.28	6.17
Japan[c]	16 142 654.0	4 287 004.0	5.10	1.36	6.46
Netherlands[c]	27 403.0	895.0	6.55	0.21	6.77
New Zealand	2 617.9	..	4.93	..	..
Norway	33 753.0	831.0	6.56	0.16	6.72
Portugal	181 028.7	..	4.10	..	..
Sweden	69 825.2	..	7.49	..	..
Switzerland	12 401.5	245.0	5.10	0.10	5.20
Turkey[b]	795 891.8	..	2.03	..	..
United Kingdom	19 041.7	..	5.04	..	..
United States[c]	199 372.0	70 113.0	5.03	1.77	6.79
Yugoslavia	829 655.2	..	3.55	..	..

a) Including transactions relating to loans for Austria, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, the United States and Yugoslavia.
b) Ministry (ies) of Education only.
c) 1985.

Percentage change between 1985 and 1986 in the proportion of GDP devoted to expenditure on education



a) Change between 1984 and 1985

Comments

Capital expenditure represents approximately 7 to 9 per cent of total public expenditure on education in eight out of twenty-one countries. The proportion is appreciably lower, under 5 per cent, in Sweden, the United Kingdom and, especially, Denmark and Belgium. It is much higher, about 12 per cent, in Portugal and Turkey which are both making great efforts to implement or extend compulsory education, and is also rather high in Switzerland. Japan, where expenditure comprises school and college regular education only, is not taken into account. By comparison with 1985 it rose in nine countries and declined in eight others.

Education's share of total public expenditure exceeds 10 per cent in every country except Germany (where it is not far below) and more particularly, Greece (6.6 per cent). In Canada and Switzerland it is over 15 per cent. However, the relative magnitude of public expenditure in the different countries, measured in the accompanying table as a percentage of GDP, has to be taken into account. Total public expenditure exceeds 63 per cent in Sweden and 50 per cent in Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Ireland, the Netherlands and approaches 50 per cent in Norway. Conversely, it is only 38 per cent in Australia, 37 per cent in the United States, 33 per cent in Japan and 30.5 per cent in Switzerland.

It is worth noting that the countries which devote the highest proportion of public expenditure to education tend on the whole to be those whose public expenditure is lowest as a proportion of GDP.

Between 1985 and 1986 in the countries for which data are available for those two years, the percentage of public expenditure allocated to education increased in Austria, Canada, Ireland and the United Kingdom but declined in Australia, Belgium and Norway, and remained more or less steady in other countries. Over the same period the share of total public expenditure in GDP increased in Austria, Finland and especially in Norway, remained level in Belgium, France, Germany and Ireland, and declined in all the other countries.

For general definitions, see the end of Chapter 6 and for remarks on the expenditure data, the beginning of Section 6.1.

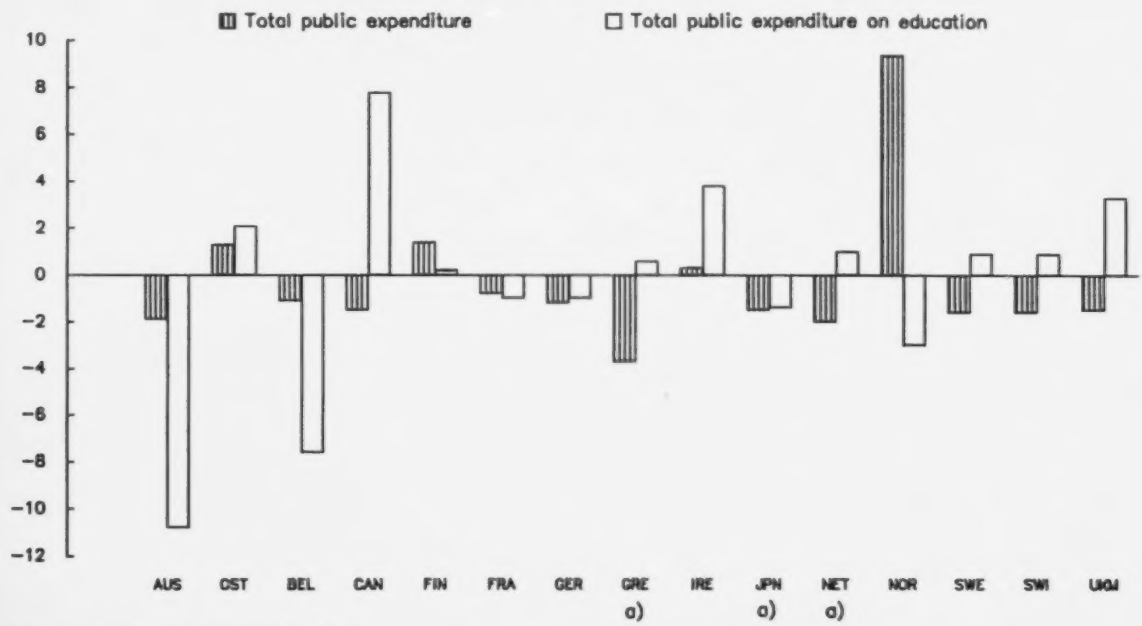
6.2. PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION (including subsidies)

Public expenditure on education [a] in 1986 (in local currency and at current prices)

	Current expenditure (million)	Capital expenditure (million)	Total (million)	Total as % of total public expenditure	Total public expenditure as % of GDP
Australia	12 583.0	1 204.0	13 787.0	13.8	38.1
Austria	77 688.4	7 564.8	85 814.8	11.5	52.4
Belgium [b]	274 357.9	2 877.1	277 235.0	10.1	53.5
Canada [c]	33 546.1	2 841.1	36 387.2	15.6	46.4
Denmark	45 400.0	1 490.0	47 592.0	12.8	56.0
Finland [c]	19 389.0	1 218.9	20 607.9	13.6	41.9
France	266 489.0	16 762.0	283 251.0	10.9	51.8
Germany [c]	77 882.0	6 575.0	86 326.0	9.5	46.9
Greece [d]	126 709.7	6 341.7	133 090.8	6.6	43.7
Ireland	992.0	99.5	1 092.1	10.8	54.6
Japan [e]	10 556 198.0	2 235 108.0	13 781 177.0	13.3	32.7
Netherlands [d]	24 796.0	1 737.0	28 298.0	11.3	59.7
New Zealand	2 394.8	223.1	2 617.9	..	..
Norway	30 665.0	1 793.0	34 584.0	13.5	49.9
Portugal	159 104.6	21 924.1	181 028.7	..	..
Sweden	62 227.1	3 376.3	69 825.2	11.8	63.6
Switzerland	11 198.7	1 180.5	12 401.5	16.7	30.5
Turkey [b]	701 829.8	94 062.0	795 891.8	..	..
United Kingdom	18 302.9	738.8	19 041.7	11.0	45.7
United States [d]	182 875.0	13 811.0	199 372.0	13.7	36.7
Yugoslavia	842 148.8	72 092.8	935 792.6	..	..

a) Including transactions relating to loans for Austria, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, the United States and Yugoslavia.
b) Expenditure of the Ministries of Education only.
c) Public and private expenditure.
d) 1985.
e) 1985. Public and private expenditure for regular public education.

Percentage change between 1985 and 1986 in total public expenditure as a proportion of GDP and public expenditure on education as a proportion of total public expenditure



a) Change between 1984 and 1985

Comments

The way in which total current expenditure is distributed among the various items varies widely from country to country, particularly for "other current expenditure" which, even in countries providing data for the other items, accounts for from 5 to 21 per cent. According to the information from the few countries providing it, this seems to cover expenditure, depending on the country, on one or more of the following categories: adult education, school transport, inspection, maintenance including lighting and heating, and research. In view of the variety of these patterns and assuming that the data cover little or no expenditure attributable to a specific item (except for Switzerland where they include central administration expenditure), the "other expenditures" have been excluded from the breakdown presented in the table opposite, though their weight in *total* public expenditure is mentioned *pro mem*. The same has been done for non distributed expenditures which, in three of the four countries for which they appear, are relatively low but are high in Sweden with the result of reducing the weight of other items.

Even on this basis, the differences between countries remain considerable. For example, the share of administrative expenditure, which is generally low, amounts to 8 per cent in Turkey and 16 per cent in Austria. Expenditure on school books and other school equipment is almost negligible in Ireland, but exceeds 20 per cent in New Zealand and 25 per cent in Denmark. The same applies to expenditures for social services but these may in some countries be covered by authorities other than the education authorities and not be treated as education expenses.

The "emoluments of personnel" item is of course the largest although its weight in each country, particularly in Denmark, is affected by the weight of the other items. In all the other countries, it represents over 70 per cent of expenditures assigned to specific items and often 90 per cent. Also noteworthy are the differences between the share of expenditure on all personnel as against that on teaching staff for countries providing data in respect to both, from about 4 points in Ireland to over 21 in the United Kingdom. Assuming that the two cover the same expenditures in 1985 and 1986, it can be seen (chart opposite) that in all countries their weight has remained much the same in ten of seventeen countries. It rose for the emoluments of teaching staff in Finland and especially in New Zealand, and for the total emoluments in Norway, Turkey and Yugoslavia. It decreased in both cases in Canada, more so for the teaching staff, and for the latter in Greece.

For general definitions, see the end of Chapter 6, and for remarks on expenditure data, see the beginning of Section 6.1.

6.3. PUBLIC CURRENT EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC EDUCATION, BY PURPOSE[a]

Percent breakdown in 1986

	Administration	Emoluments		School books	Scholarships	Welfare services	Other	Non-distributed
		Total	Of which teaching staff					
		(% of identified items only)					(% of all items)	
Austria	16.7	77.0	59.8	1.4	3.5	1.3	17.9	–
Belgium[b]	1.5	98.2	..	..	..	0.3	16.3	–
Canada[c]	2.8	78.4	58.3	8.3	5.5	4.9	14.1	–
Denmark	2.1	58.7	..	25.1	11.5	2.6	5.2	–
Finland[c]	2.8	74.7	55.7	7.6	5.1	9.7	12.4	–
France	1.0	93.7	..	2.7	2.6	..	10.6	–
Germany[c]	1.5	93.8	..	..	1.3	3.3	16.3	–
Greece[d]	..	98.4	90.4	..	0.3	1.3	8.1	–
Ireland	1.2	91.3	87.6	0.4	2.2	4.9	18.9	–
Netherlands[b,d]	1.7	84.4	82.6	6.3	5.5	2.0	14.5	–
New Zealand	0.1	71.2	61.3	21.1	5.1	2.5	4.7	3.1
Norway	3.8	82.2	..	8.3	5.7	..	16.5	–
Portugal	2.6	93.2	..	..	..	4.2	7.1	0.3
Sweden	5.3	72.1	..	4.4	6.6	11.6	15.7	21.4
Switzerland	..	93.5	76.9	4.3	2.3	..	14.4	–
Turkey	8.5	86.9	79.8	1.2	0.6	2.7	4.7	–
United Kingdom	2.6	82.8	61.5	4.7	7.5	2.3	12.5	2.7
Yugoslavia	..	78.0	..	8.9	1.9	11.1	21.3	–

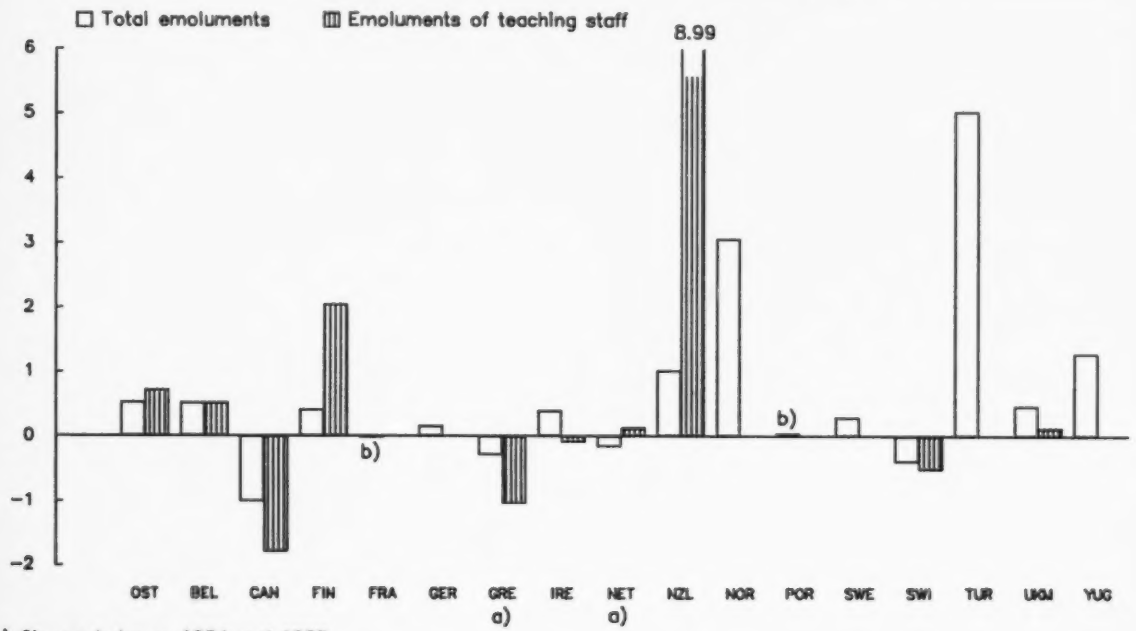
a) The table excludes Australia and Japan due to the limited number of items for which they report their data. From those items which they have supplied, they indicate that 5.9 per cent of *total* current public spending is on "scholarships" and 2.4 per cent on "welfare services" in Australia while Japan (1985) devoted 65.2 per cent of the *total* (public and private) expenditure for public schools and universities to "emoluments" and 52.2 per cent of the same total specifically to emoluments for teaching staff.

b) The data refer to public current expenditure on public and private education.

c) Public and private expenditure.

d) 1985.

Percentage change between 1985 and 1986 in the proportion of public current expenditure accounted for by the total emoluments and emoluments of teaching staff



a) Change between 1984 and 1985

b) Low figure

6. EXPENDITURE

GENERAL DEFINITIONS

Total expenditure includes current and capital expenditure on both public and private education by both public and private sources, but excludes foreign aid given or received.

Public expenditure is expenditure funded by public authorities at all levels. *Private expenditure* is expenditure funded by private sources.

Expenditure by the Ministry or Ministries of Education which is not directly related to education (e.g. culture, sport, youth activities, etc.) is, in principle, not included. On the other hand, any expenditure on education by other Ministries (e.g. Health, Agriculture, Labour, Tourism, etc.) is included.

Scholarships are included in the expenditure by the authorities (public or private) that granted them and not in the expenditure of the households that received them. The same applies to all other forms of transfer.

Current expenditure relates to educational goods and services whose lifespan should not in theory exceed the current year (emoluments of personnel, educational supplies, scholarships, minor repairs and maintenance, administration, etc.). Such expenditure has to be renewed in order to provide the same goods and services in the following year.

Capital expenditure relates to assets that will be used for several years (construction of buildings, major repairs, major items of equipment, vehicles, etc.), although the financing of these assets is reported in one single financial year.

Administration: All administrative expenditure, with the exception of emoluments of personnel.

Personnel: Emoluments of administrative staff, teaching staff and other categories of staff.

School books: Expenditure directly related to instructional activities, i.e. school books, textbooks, exercise books and other scholastic and teaching supplies.

Scholarships: Scholarships and other forms of financial assistance (with the exception of loans) granted to students for study within the country or abroad.

Welfare services: School meals and boarding expenses, school transport, medical services, etc.

Other current expenditure: Expenditure for the maintenance and operation of buildings (water, electricity, heating, minor repairs, cleaning, etc.) plus expenditure not included elsewhere.

The figures refer to the *accounting period* beginning during the year specified.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is the sum of final expenditure on goods and services in purchasers' values, less the c.i.f. value (cost insurance freight) of imports. The figures for GDP are taken from the *National Accounts* published regularly by the OECD.

Total public expenditure covers the expenditure (education, health, defence, agriculture, transport and communications, etc.) made at all administrative levels but does not include transfers received. The figures have been taken from the *Economic Outlook* published regularly by the OECD.

Other data available, when provided by the countries.

Breakdown of total, current and capital expenditure by main public and private sources. Amount of aid received for education and that given to foreign countries.

Breakdown of public expenditure by purpose and by level and type of public and private education (though comparable breakdowns for private expenditure are rarely provided).

ANNEX

	COMPULSORY EDUCATION			SCHOOL YEAR	
	Age limit		Duration	Start	End
	Min.	Max.[a]		year n	year n+1
Australia	6	15[b]	9	January	December (year n)
Austria[c]	6	15(17)	9(11)	September	June
Belgium	6	16(18)	10(12)	September	June
Canada	6/7	15/16	9	September	June
Denmark	6/7	16/17	9	August	June
Finland	7	17	10	August	May
France	6	16	10	September	June
Germany	6	16(18)	10(12)	August	July
Greece	5½	14½	9	September	June
Iceland	..	..	..	..	..
Ireland	6	15	9	September	August
Italy	6	14	8	September	June
Japan	6	15	9	April	March
Luxembourg	6	15	9	September	July
Netherlands	5	16	11	August	July
New Zealand	6	15	9	February	December (year n)
Norway	7	16	9	August	June
Portugal	6	14	8	October	June
Spain	6	14(16)	8(10)	September	June
Sweden	7	16	9	August	June
Switzerland[d]	6/7	15/16	8/9	August/September	June/July
Turkey	7	15	8	September	May
United Kingdom	5	16	11	September	July
United States	6	17	11	September	May
Yugoslavia	7	15	8	September	June

a) The figures in brackets include compulsory part-time education (or, in the case of Spain, first level vocational education) for those not enrolled in full-time education.
b) 16 in Tasmania.
c) The duration of compulsory schooling for girls in the Province of Vorarlberg is 11 years. Young people working in farming but not apprenticed are required to attend a technical school part-time up to age 18.
d) Variable according to canton.

Remarks: *Independently of the age at which it is set, the legal end of compulsory education varies according to country. Only the general rules are described below:* i) *a pupil may leave school on the day of his and her birthday in most provinces of Australia and Canada, France, New Zealand and Turkey, and also in the United States and Switzerland though the regulations vary from one state or canton to another;* ii) *pupils must complete the current school year or term in some provinces of Australia and Canada, in Austria, Belgium (for part-time compulsory education), Ireland, Japan, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom;* iii) *pupils are required to have completed the statutory number of years of compulsory education in Belgium (for full-time education), Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Norway and also in Spain, where pupils who have been unable to do so must take vocational training, and in Yugoslavia, where such pupils must complete their education in evening classes.*

DIAGRAMS OF EDUCATION SYSTEMS

General Observations

These diagrams give an outline of the structure of the regular education systems in OECD Member countries. Only the most common types of education, internal flows and outflows are indicated. Similarly, neither the inflows of adults into third level education, which vary in magnitude from country to country, nor the types of education specially designed for them are shown.

In the case of federal countries, only the more commonly used types of structure are included.

The size of the boxes is in no way proportional to the number of pupils/students concerned.

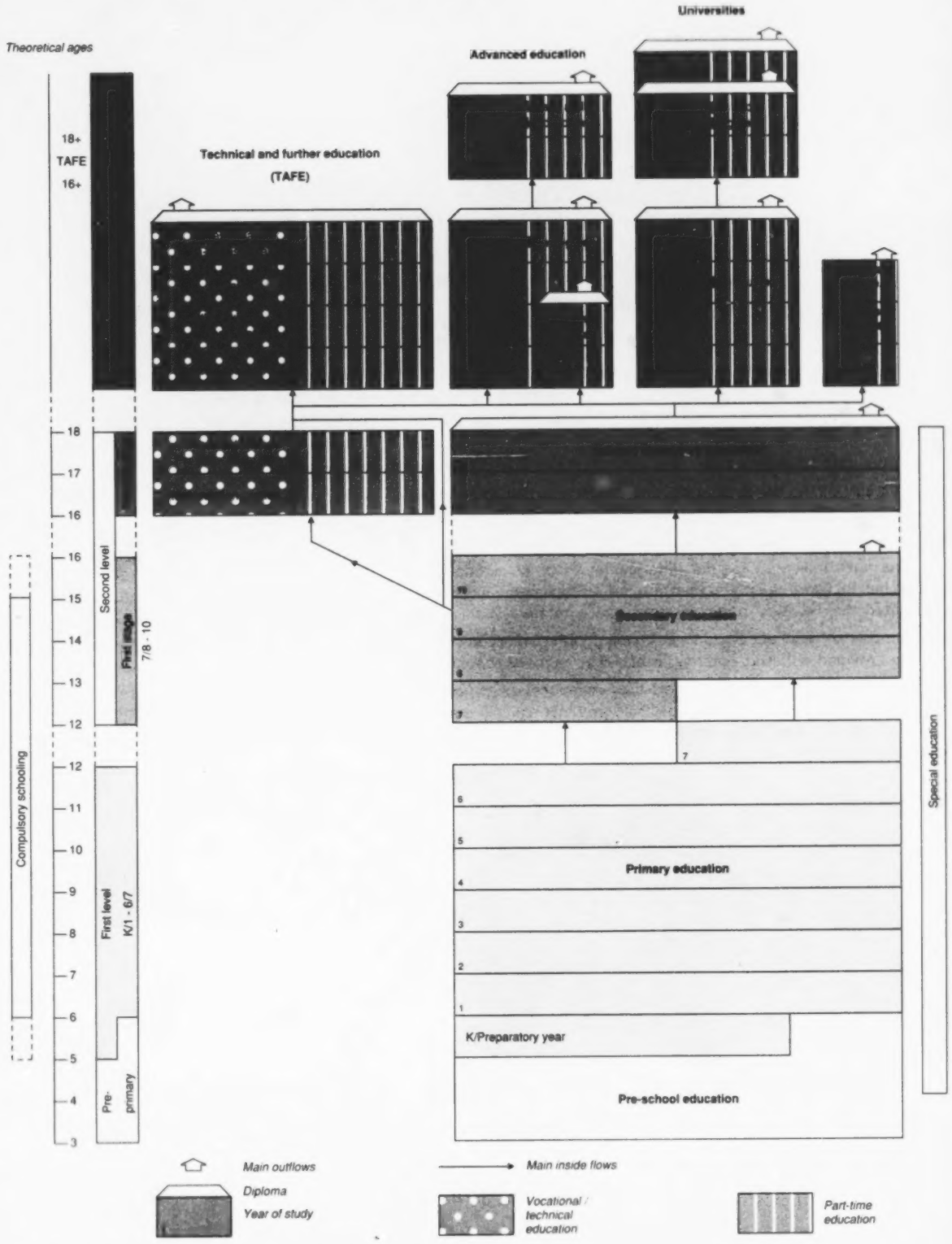
The duration indicated for a particular type of education is that which applies in the majority of cases: it may differ for certain fields of study, particularly in third level or part-time education.

The ages indicated for the different levels of education apply to pupils/students whose passage through the system has followed the normal pattern, i.e. to those who have neither been kept back nor moved up, and who have not interrupted their studies, particularly prior to enrolment in third level education.

Pre-primary education has been coupled with primary education although, depending on the country concerned, it may be provided either in sections attached to primary schools, in separate establishments, or in both.

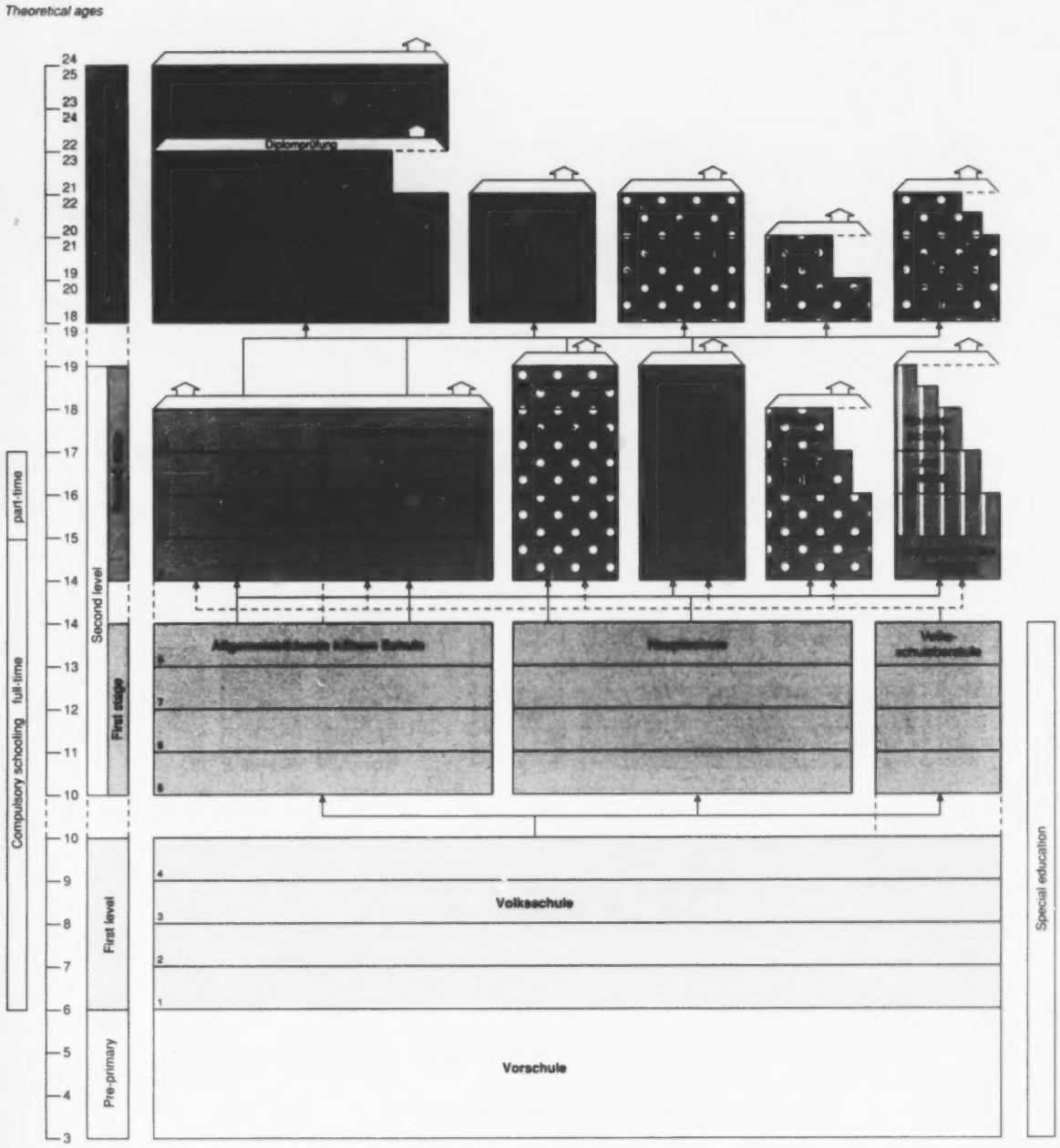
Apprenticeships – as well as part-time vocational education in the German-speaking countries – are in fact full-time training courses leading to a full qualification which can, in some countries, also be obtained at the end of a full-time course of study. They have, however, been classified as part-time education because only part of this training takes place in an ordinary or specialised educational institution.

AUSTRALIA

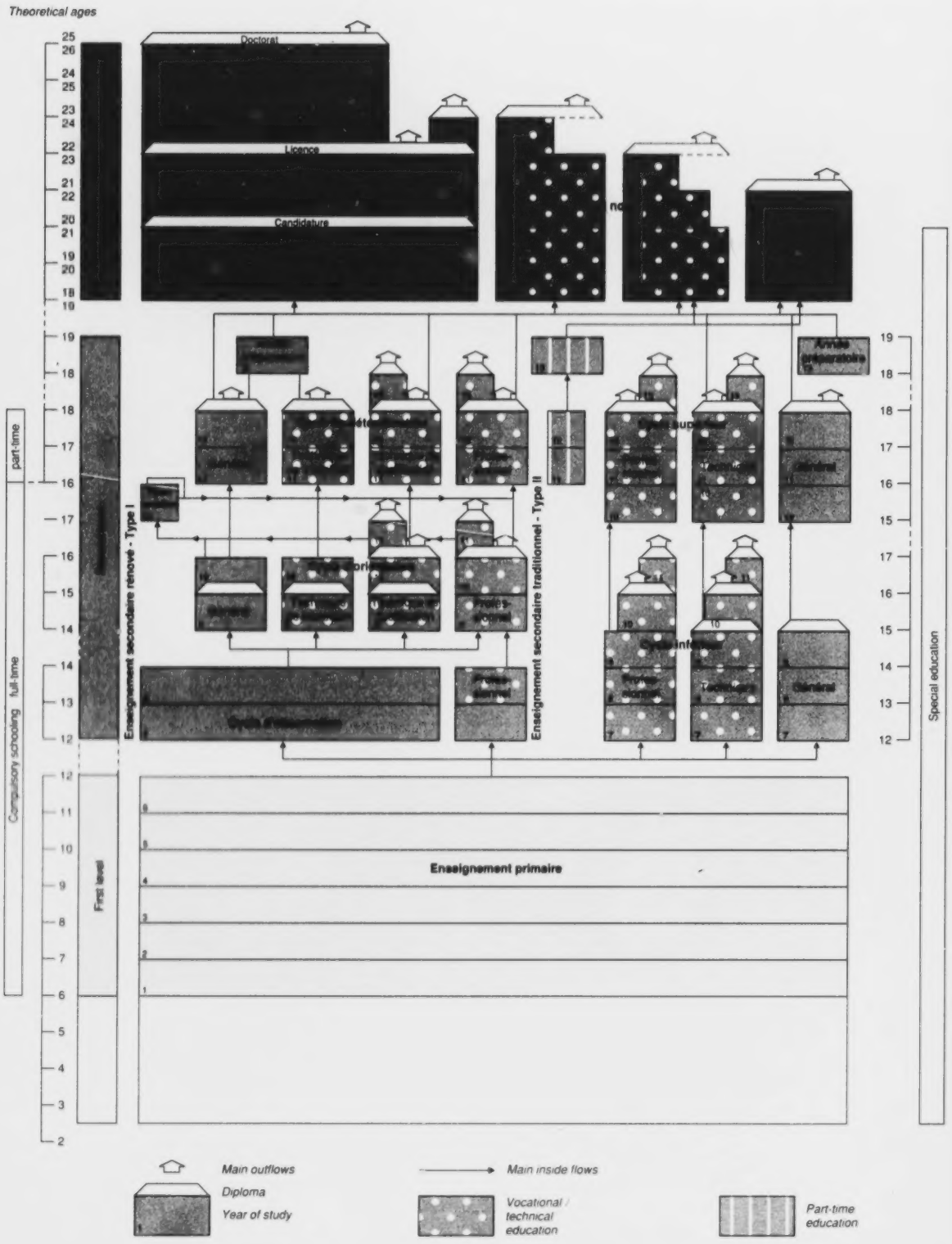


1. Separate secondary colleges in Tasmania and ACT (Government system).

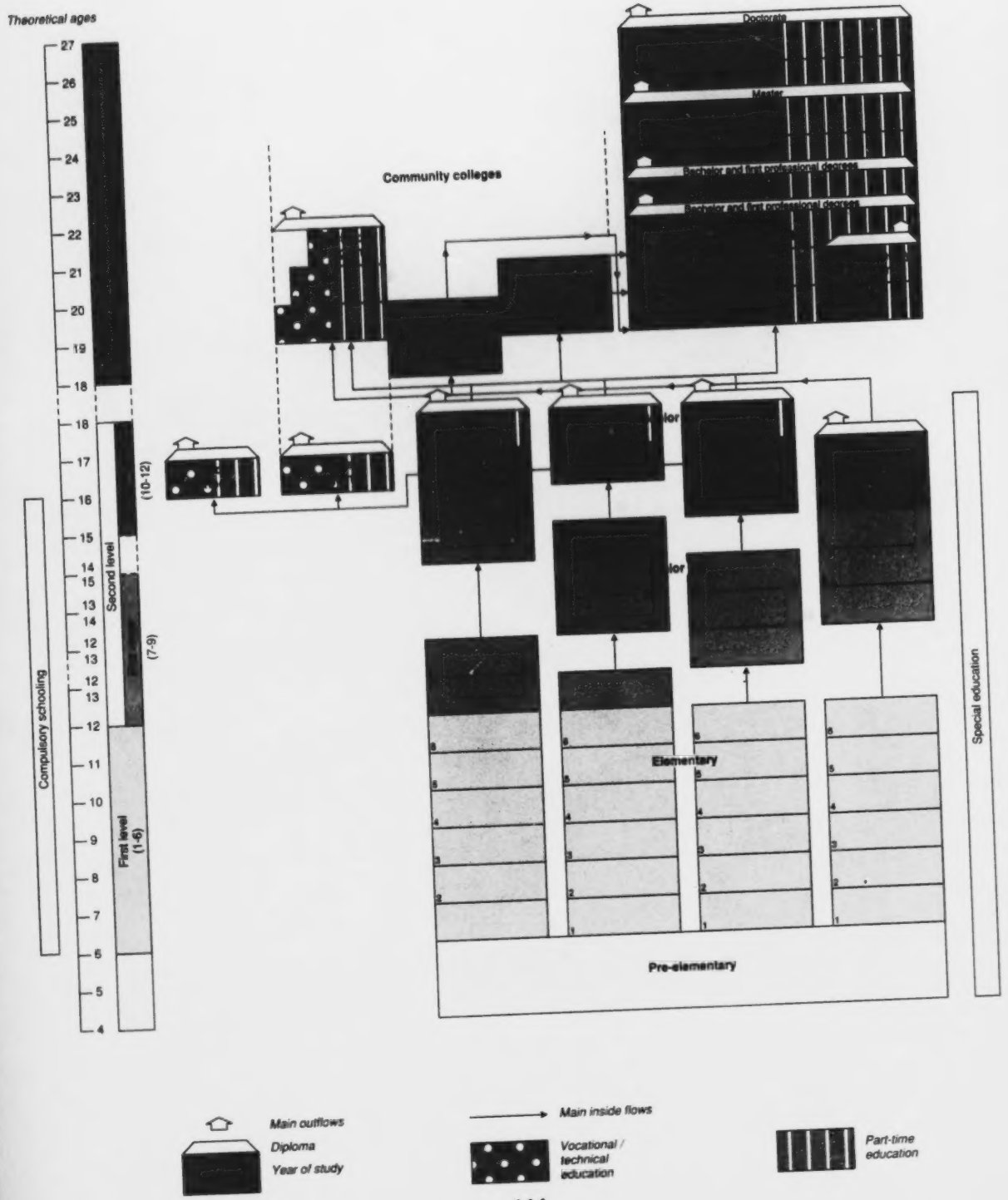
AUSTRIA


Theoretical ages
24
25
23
24
22
23
21
22
20
21
19
20
18
19
19
18
17
16
15
14
14
13
12
11
10
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
Diplomprüfung
Compulsory schooling
full-time
part-time
Second level
First stage
First level
Pre-primary
Volksschule
Vorschule
Special education
Main outflows
Main inside flows
Diploma
Year of study
Vocational / technical education
Part-time education

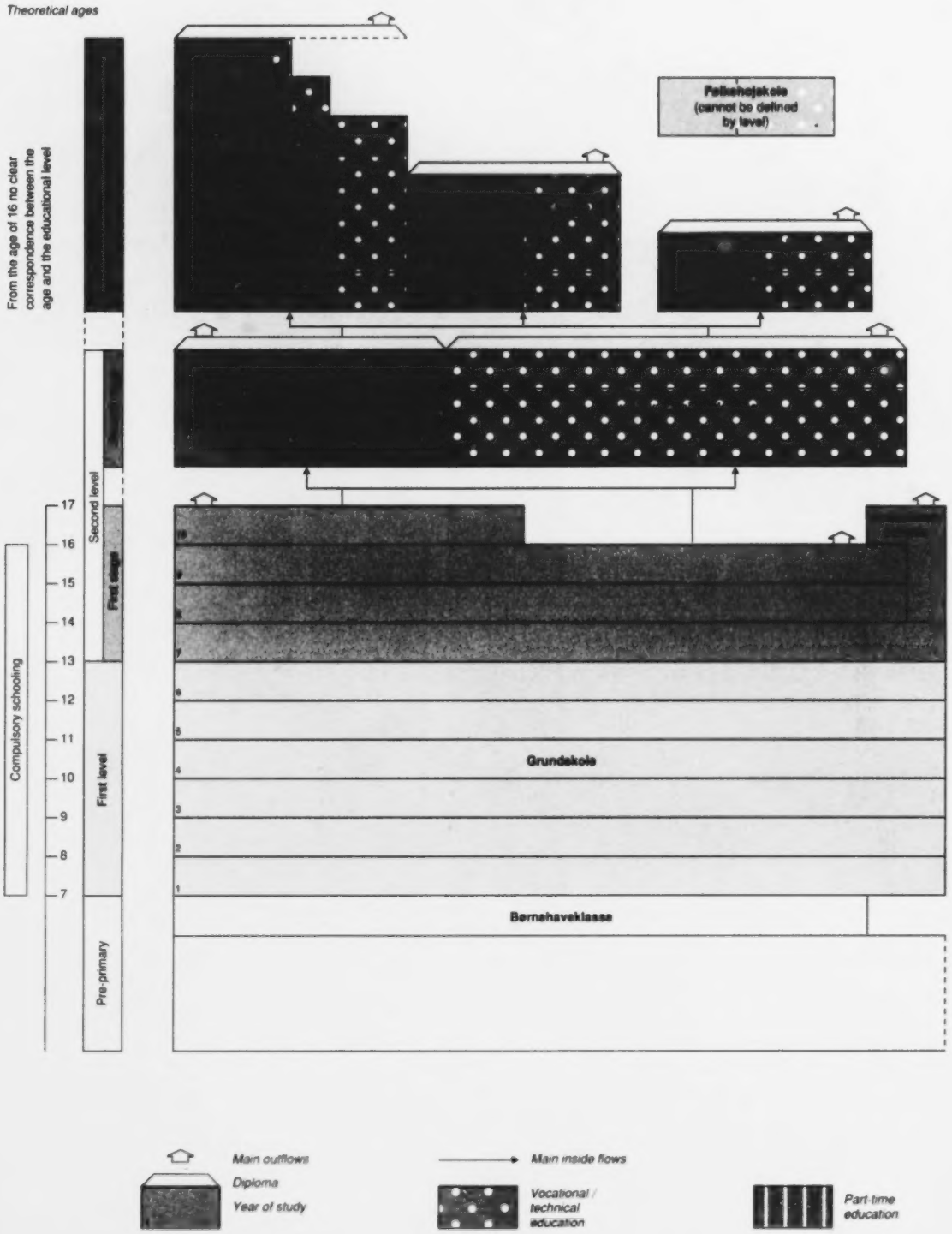
BELGIUM


Theoretical ages
Doctorat
Licence
Candidature
Enseignement secondaire rénové - Type I
Enseignement secondaire traditionnel - Type II
Enseignement primaire
Compulsory schooling full-time part-time
First level
Special education
Main outflows
Diploma
Year of study
Main inside flows
Vocational / technical education
Part-time education

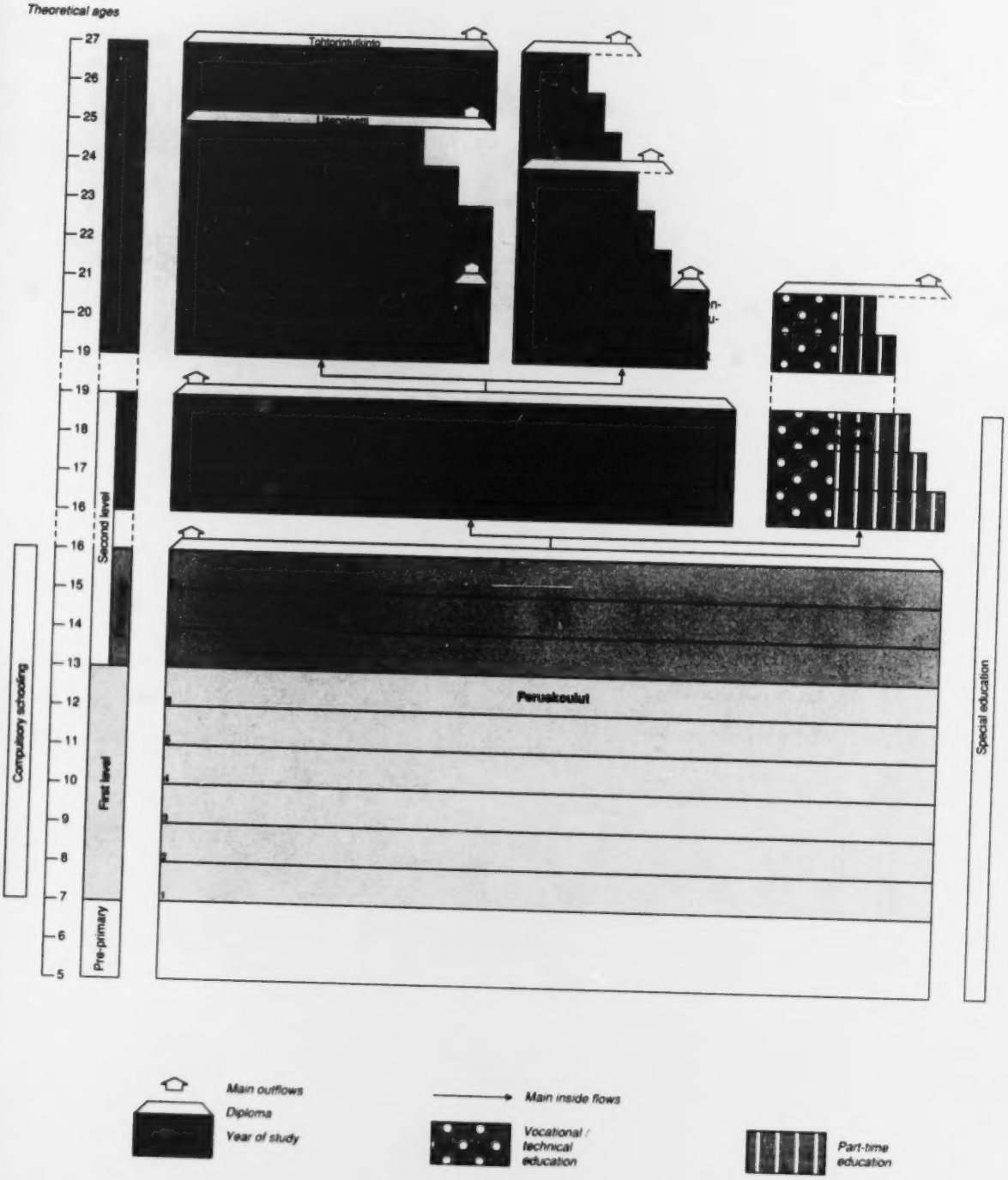
CANADA


Theoretical ages
27
26
25
24
23
22
21
20
19
18
18
17
16
15
14
15
13
14
12
13
12
13
12
11
10
9
8
7
6
5
5
4
Compulsory schooling
First level (1-6)
Second level
(10-12)
(7-9)
Community colleges
Doctorate
Master
Bachelor and first professional degrees
Bachelor and first professional degrees
Special education
Elementary
Pre-elementary
Main outflows
Diploma
Year of study
Main inside flows
Vocational / technical education
Part-time education

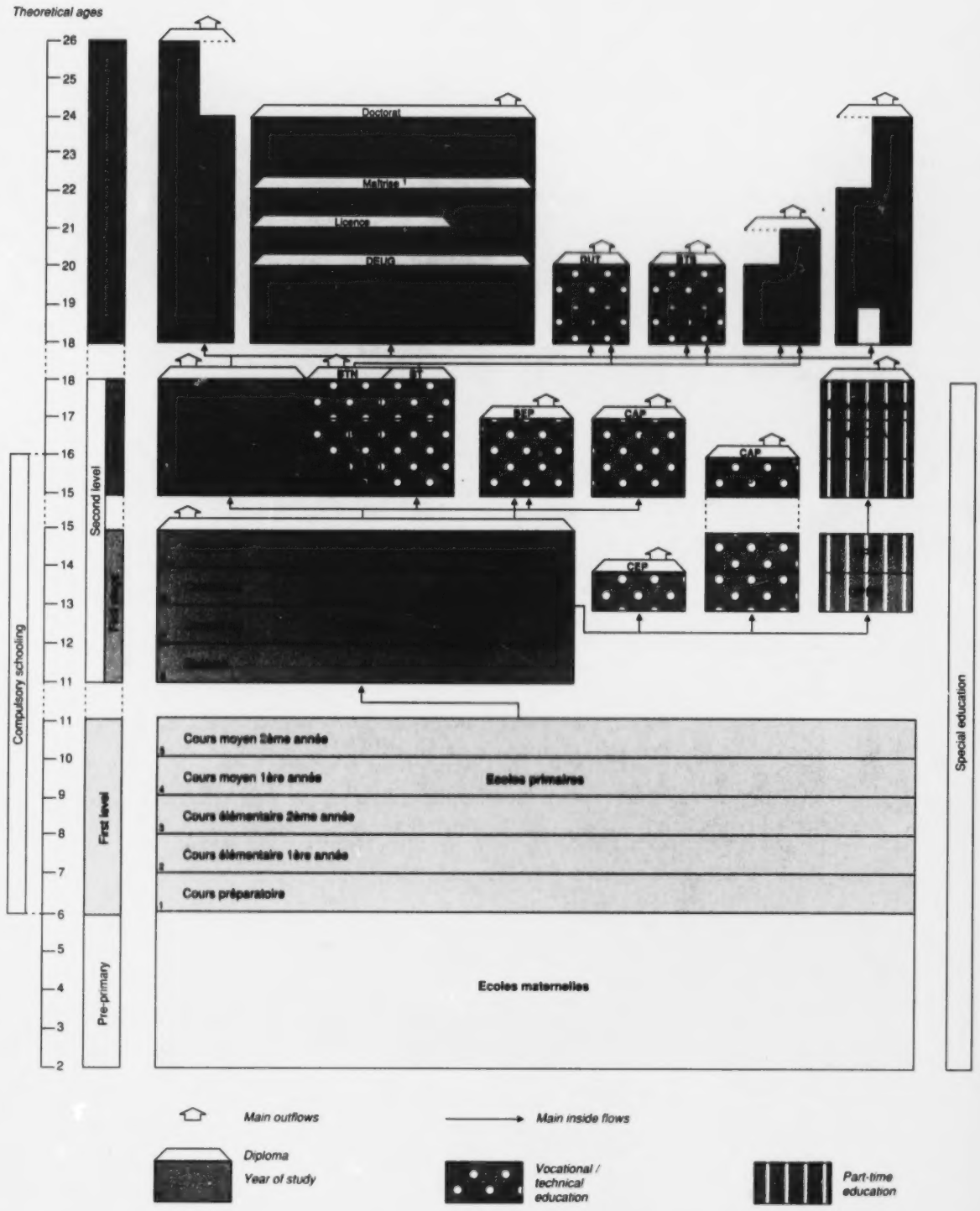
DENMARK


Theoretical ages
From the age of 16 no clear correspondence between the age and the educational level
Compulsory schooling
17
16
15
14
13
12
11
10
9
8
7
Second level
First stage
First level
Pre-primary
Folkehojskole
(cannot be defined by level)
10
9
8
7
6
5
Grundskole
4
3
2
1
Børnehaveklasse
Main outflows
Diploma
Year of study
Main inside flows
Vocational / technical education
Part-time education

FINLAND

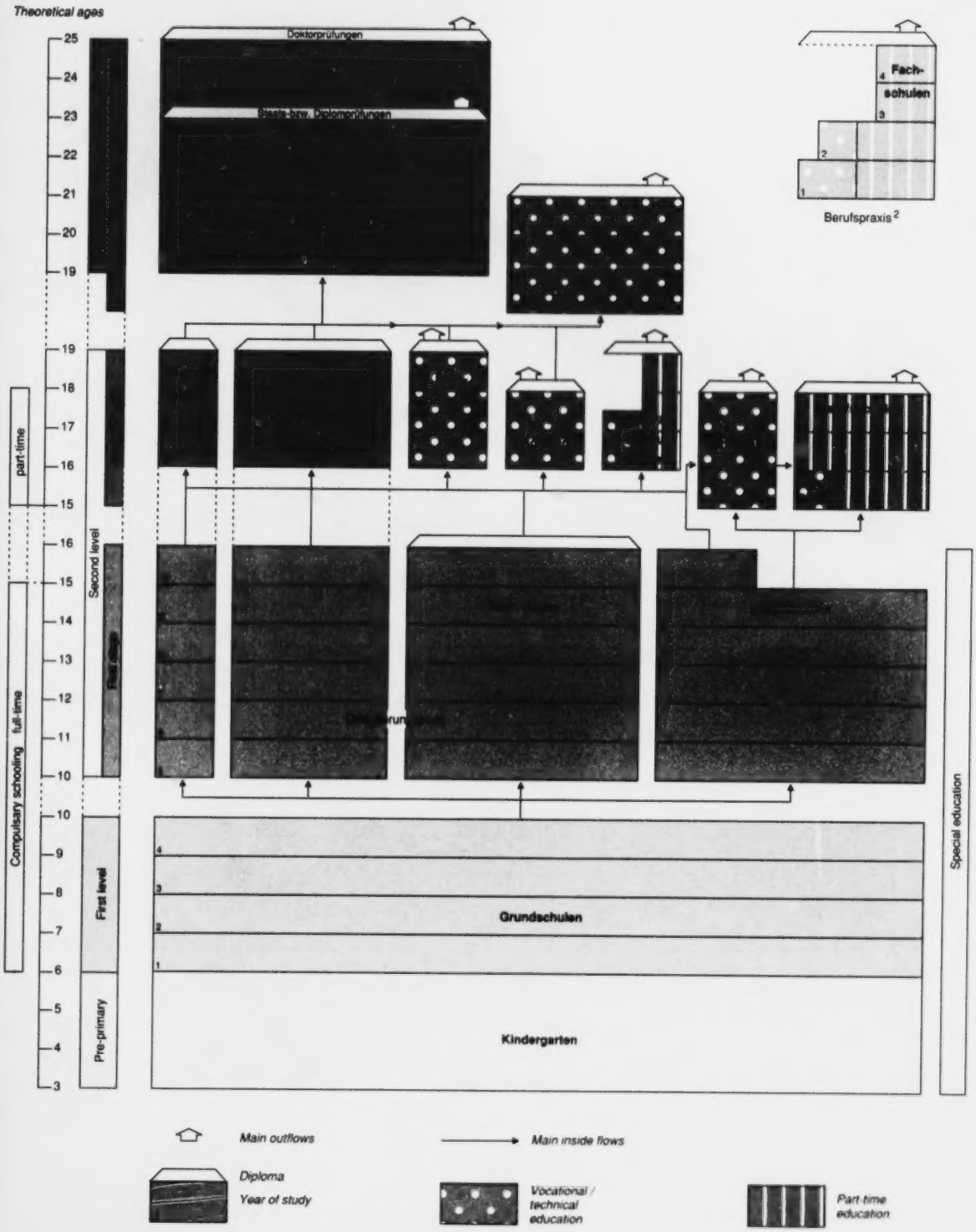

Theoretical ages
27
26
25
24
23
22
21
20
19
19
18
17
16
16
15
14
13
12
11
10
9
8
7
6
5
Second level
First level
Pre-primary
Compulsory schooling
Perusskoulut
Special education
Main outflows
Diploma
Year of study
Main inside flows
Vocational / technical education
Part-time education

FRANCE



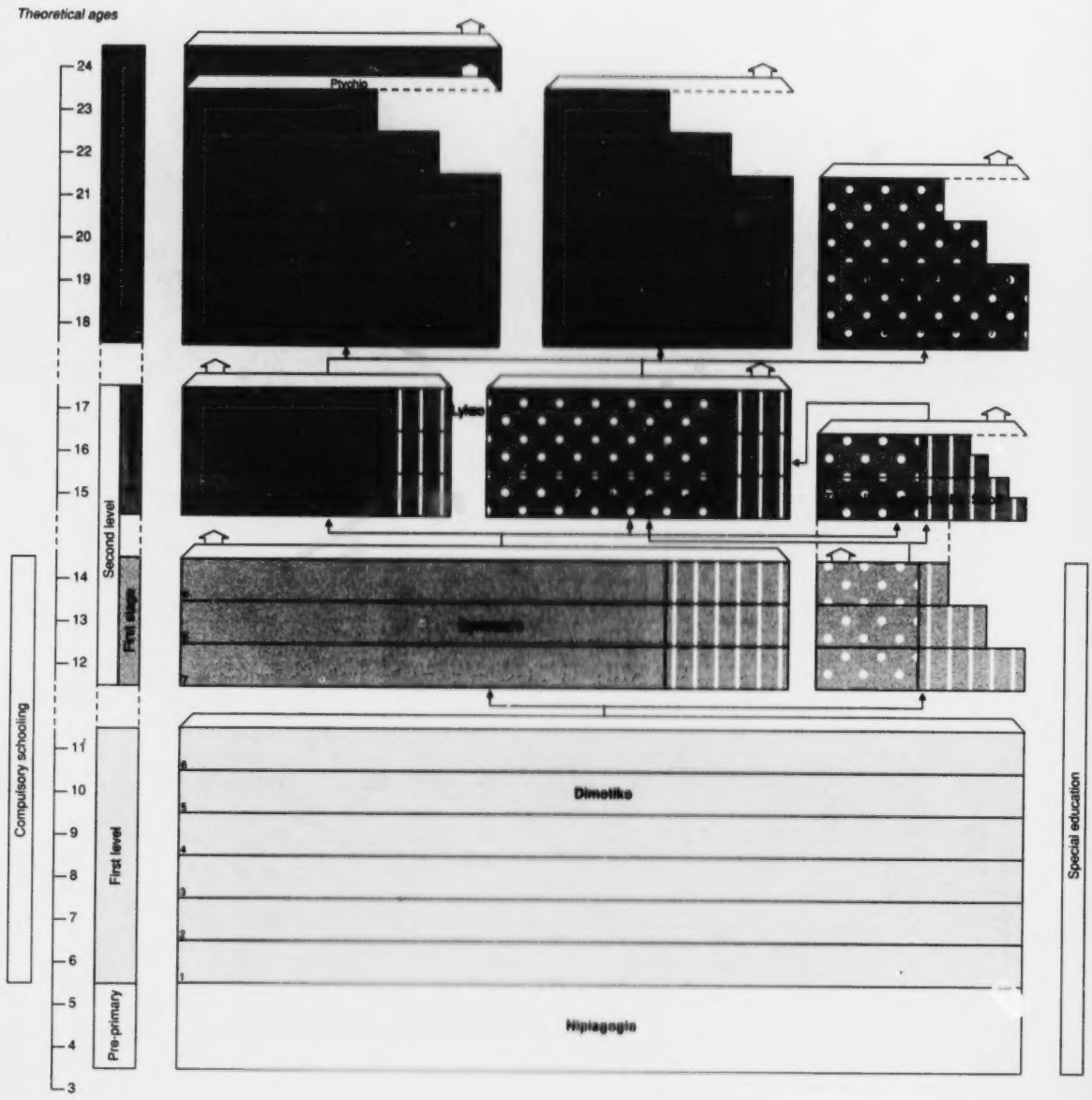
1. The master degree can be obtained either directly on the basis of 4 years of study or after one additional year for the students already holding the "licence". For international comparisons, it is classified as a first degree (level 6).

GERMANY

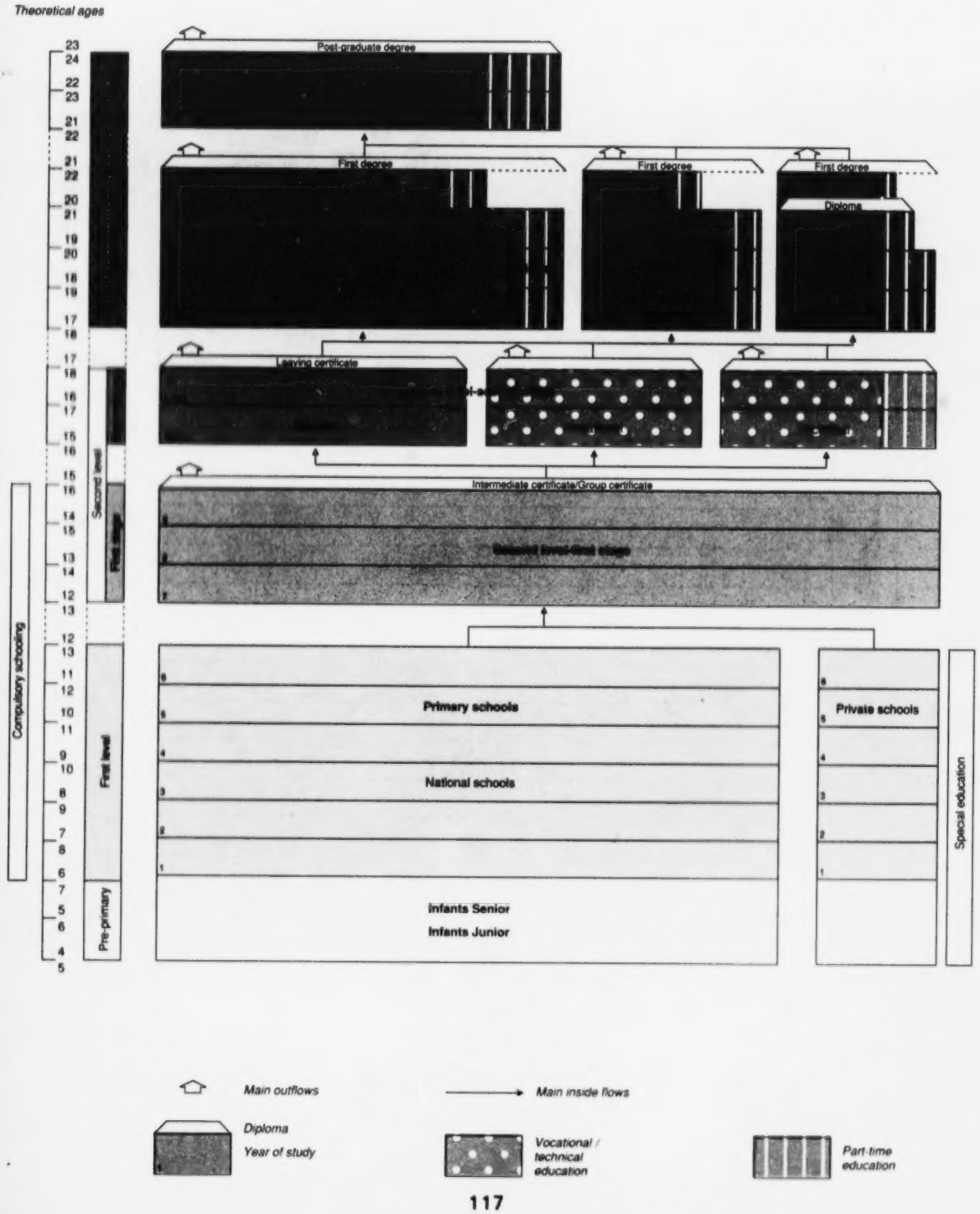


1. Basic vocational training year.
2. Work experience required

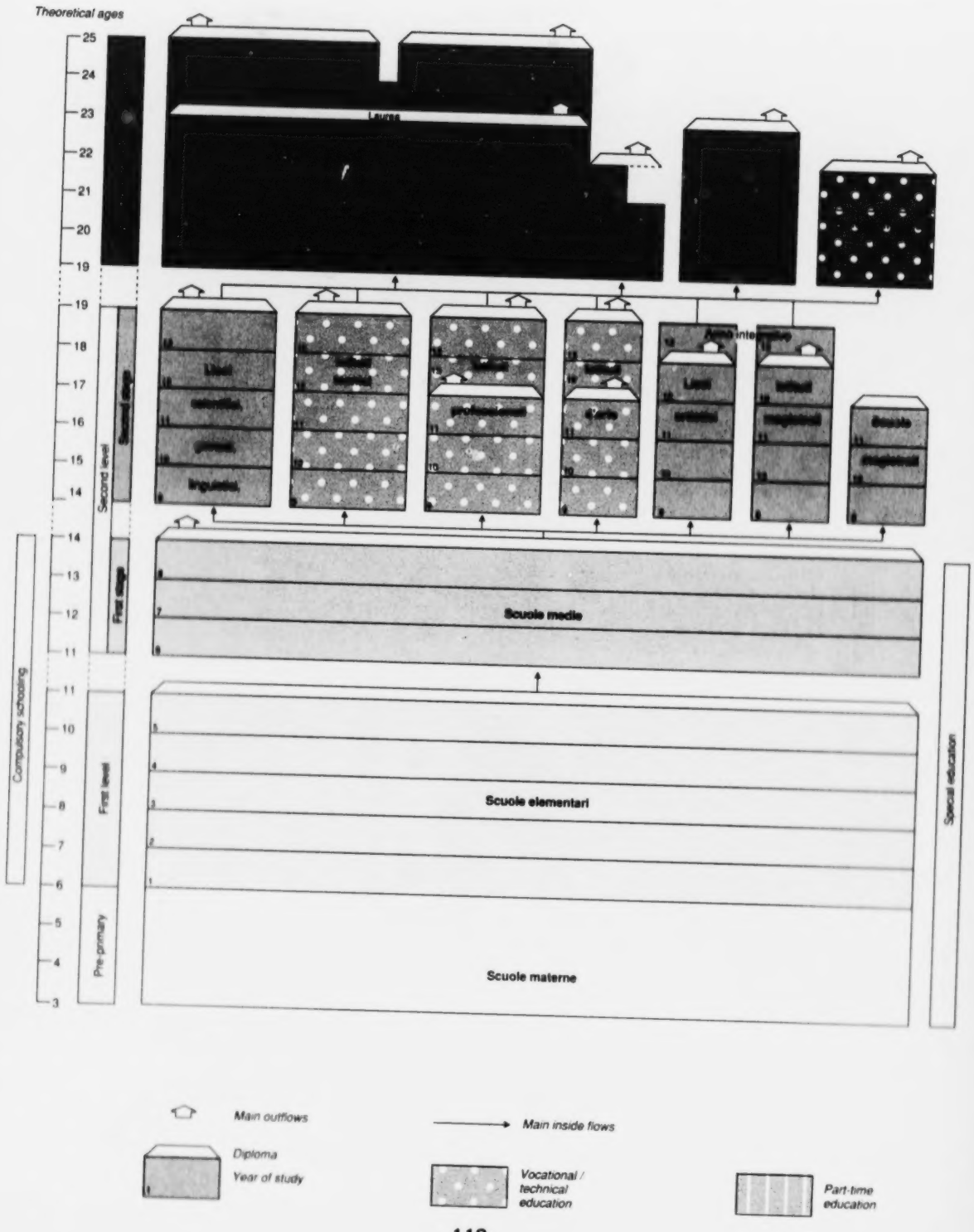
GREECE


Theoretical ages
24
23
22
21
20
19
18
17
16
15
14
13
12
11
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
Second level
First stage
First level
Pre-primary
Compulsory schooling
Special education
Dimotiko
Hiplagogio
Main outflows
Diploma
Year of study
Main inside flows
Vocational / technical education
Part-time education

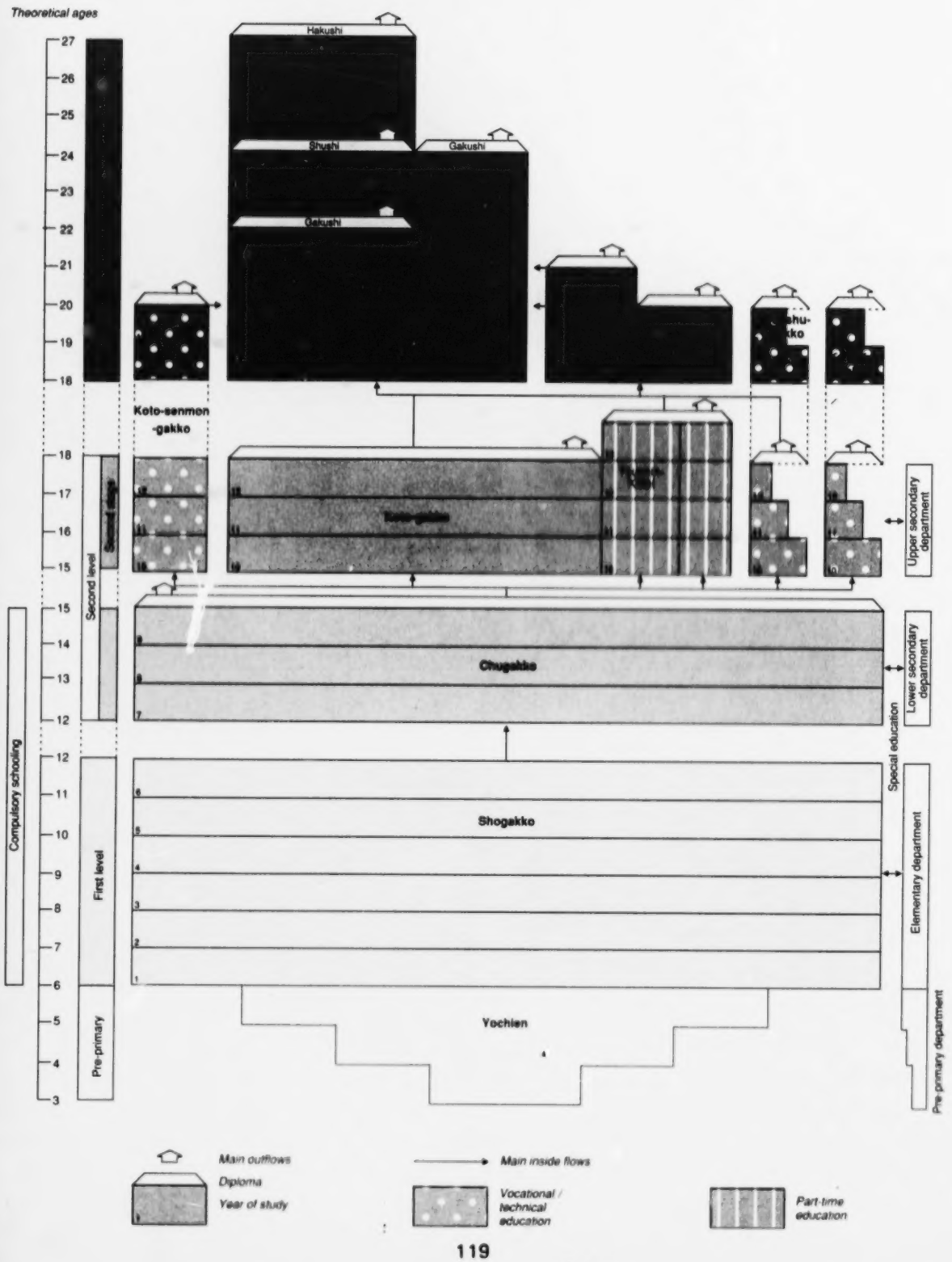
IRELAND


Theoretical ages
Post-graduate degree
First degree
First degree
First degree
Diploma
Leaving certificate
Intermediate certificate/Group certificate
Primary schools
National schools
Infants Senior
Infants Junior
Private schools
Special education
Second level
First stage
First level
Pre-primary
Compulsory schooling
Main outflows
Main inside flows
Diploma
Year of study
Vocational / technical education
Part-time education

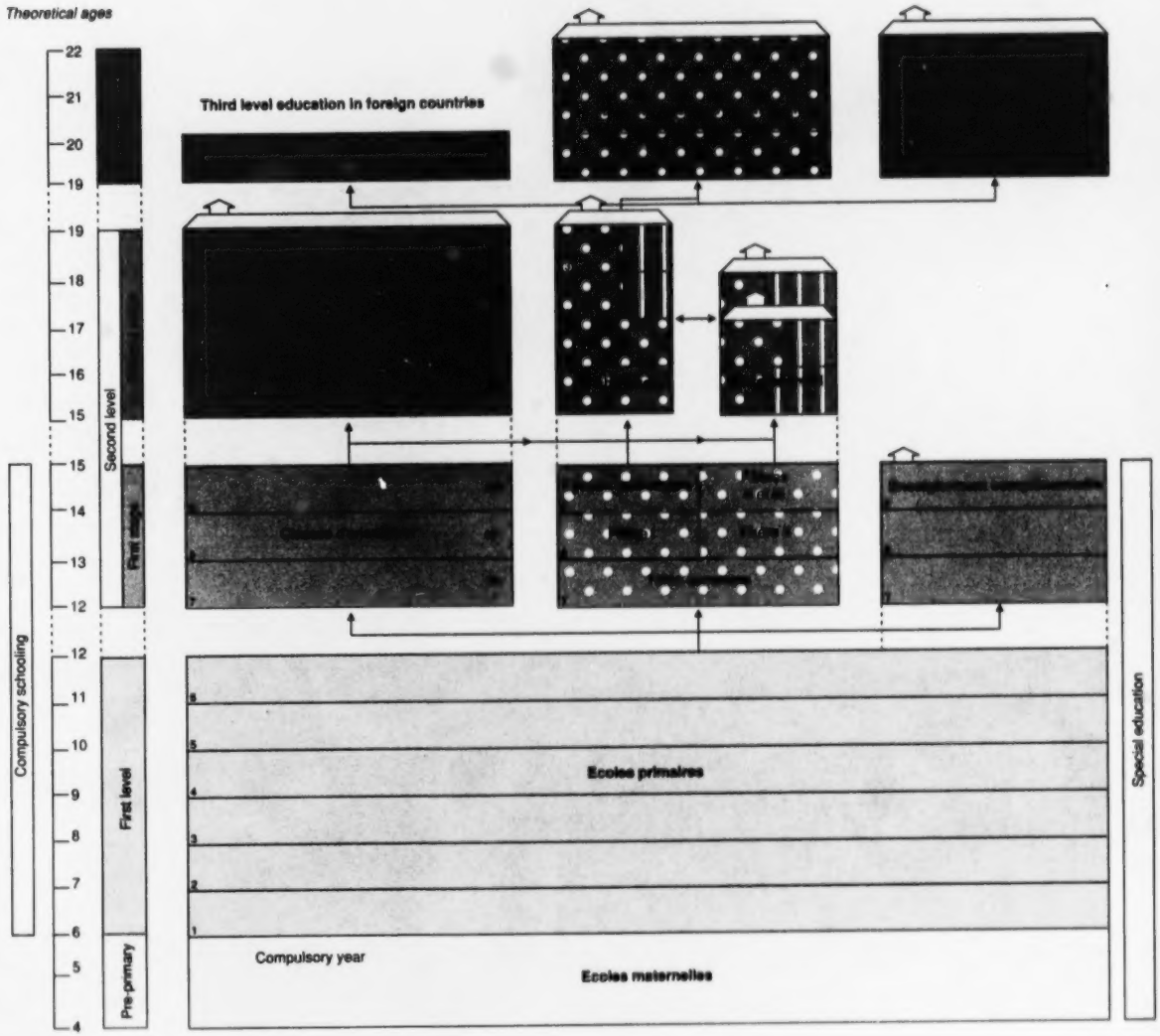
ITALY


Theoretical ages
25
24
23
22
21
20
19
19
18
17
16
15
14
14
13
12
11
11
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
Second level
Second stage
First stage
First level
Pre-primary
Compulsory schooling
Scuole medie
Scuole elementari
Scuole materne
Special education
Main outflows
Diploma
Year of study
Main inside flows
Vocational / technical education
Part-time education

JAPAN

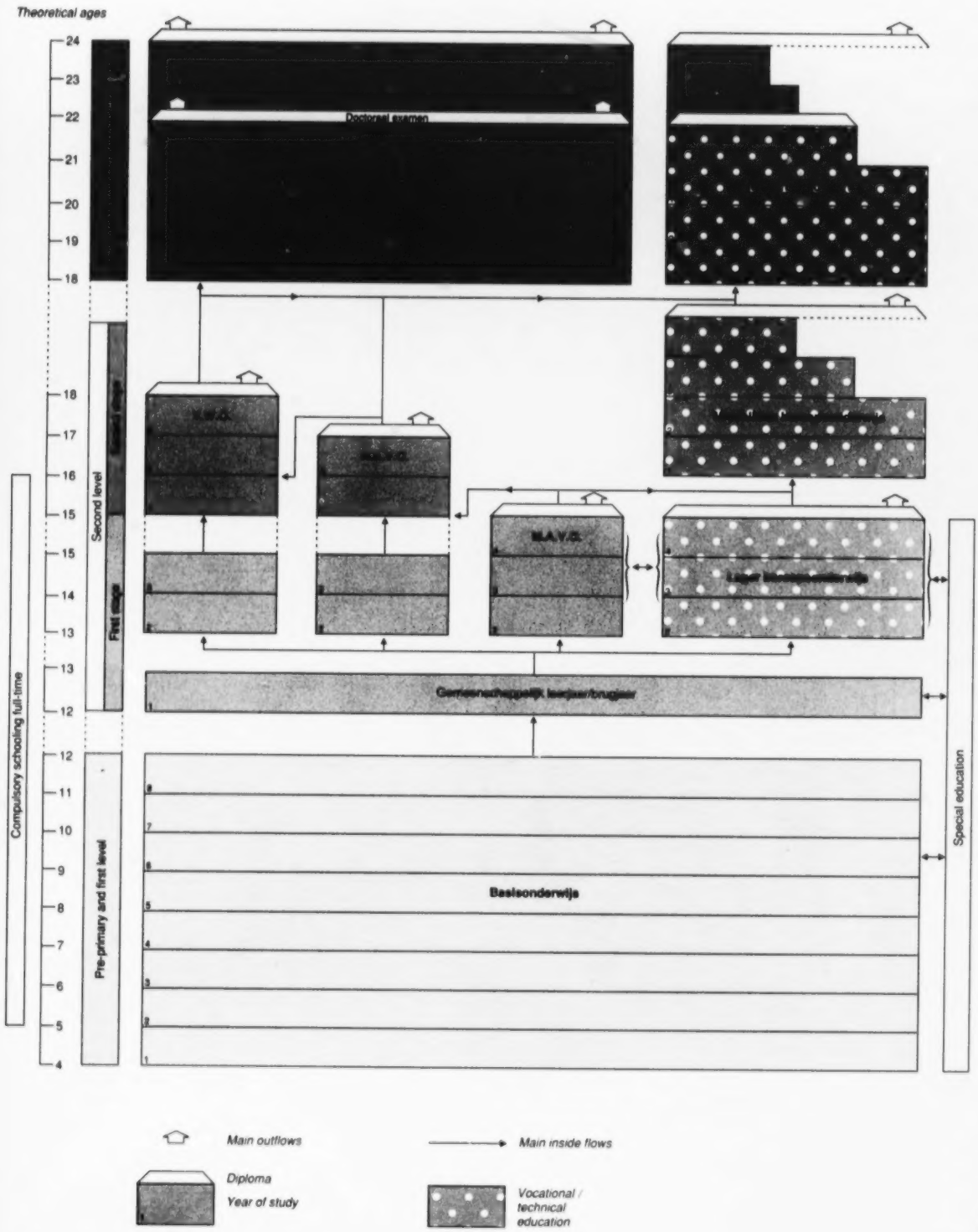

Theoretical ages
Hakushi
Shushi
Gakushi
Gakushi
Koto-senmon -gakko
Second stage
Second level
Compulsory schooling
First level
Pre-primary
Chugakko
Shogakko
Yochien
Special education
Upper secondary department
Lower secondary department
Elementary department
Pre-primary department
Main outflows
Diploma
Year of study
Main inside flows
Vocational / technical education
Part-time education

LUXEMBOURG


Theoretical ages
22
21
20
19
19
18
17
16
15
15
14
13
12
12
11
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
Second level
First stage
First level
Pre-primary
Compulsory schooling
Third level education in foreign countries
Ecoles primaires
Compulsory year
Ecoles maternelles
Special education
Main outflows
Diploma
Year of study
Main inside flows
Vocational / technical education
Part-time education

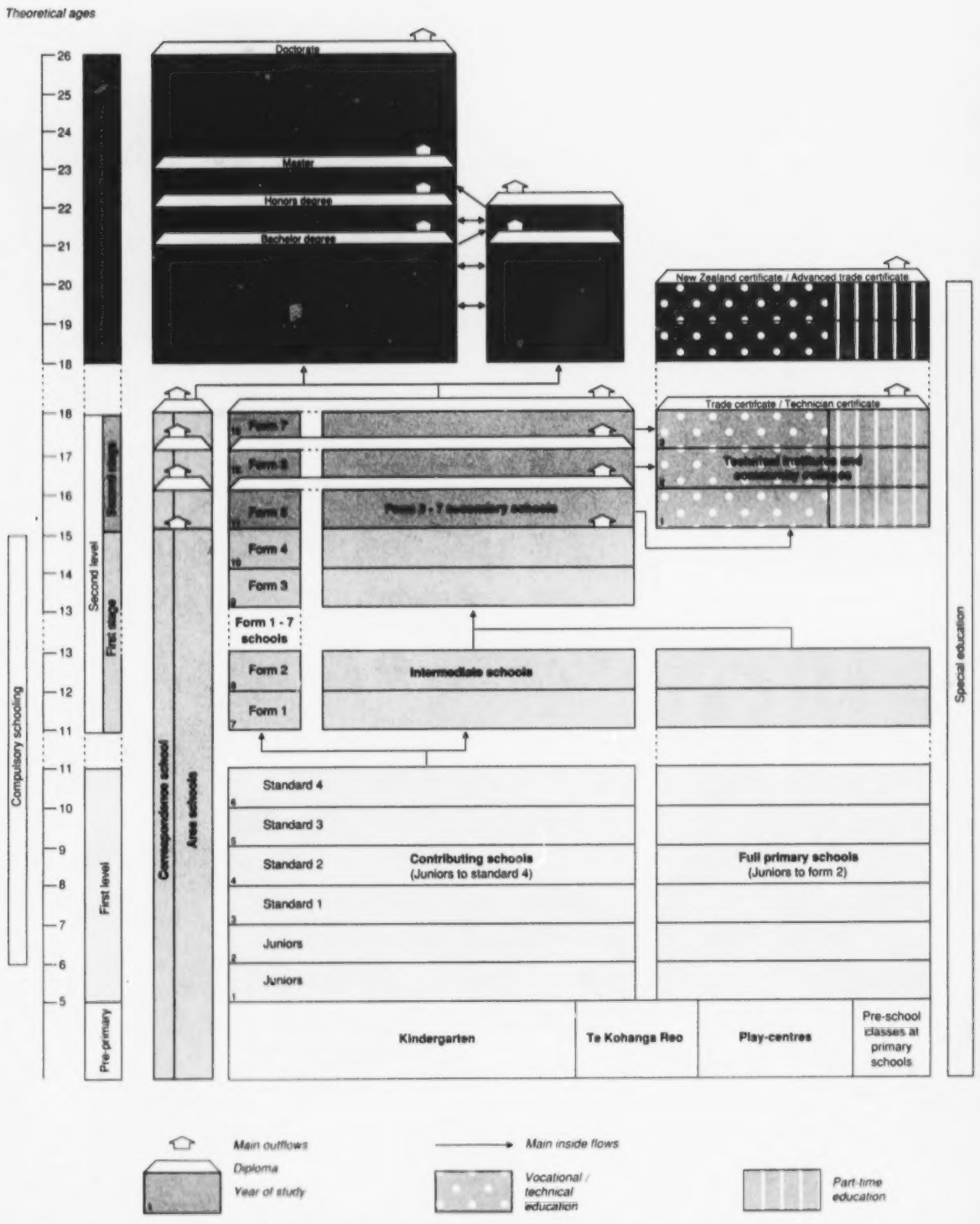
THE NETHERLANDS

Full-time education only



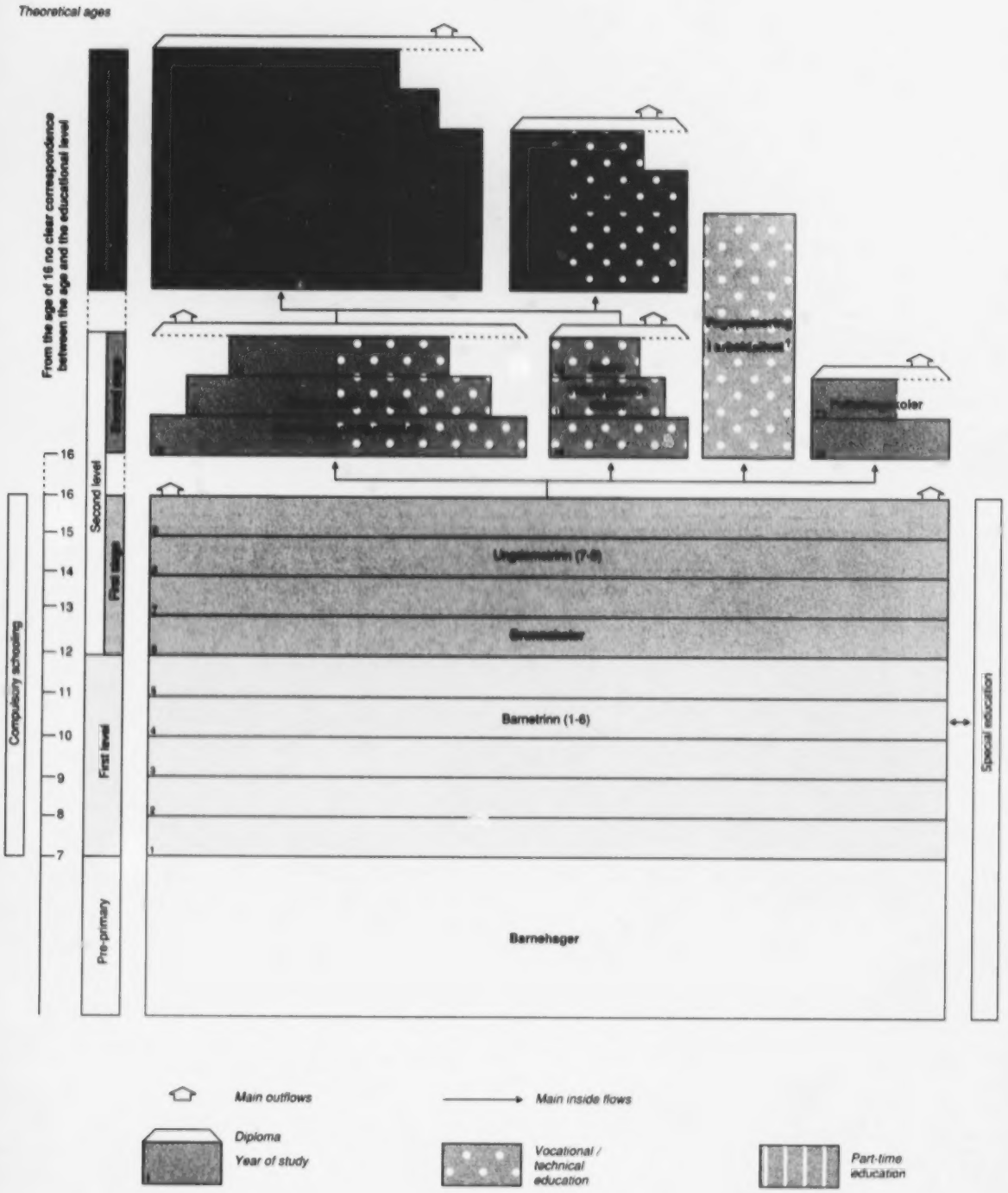
Note : Full-time compulsory schooling is followed by one year of part-time compulsory schooling.

NEW ZEALAND



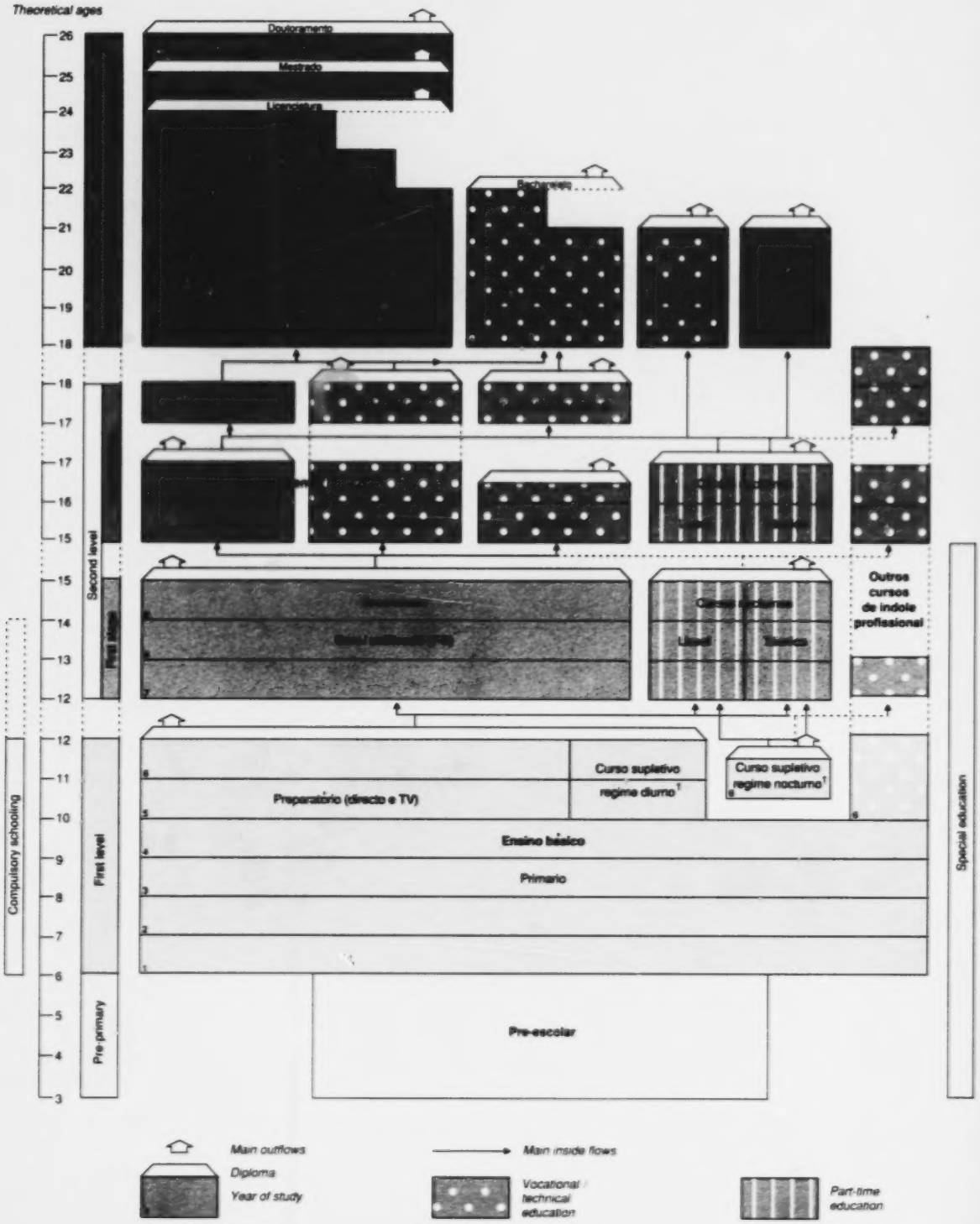
Note : Although compulsory schooling begins at 6, 100% of all five-year olds are enrolled in primary school.

NORWAY



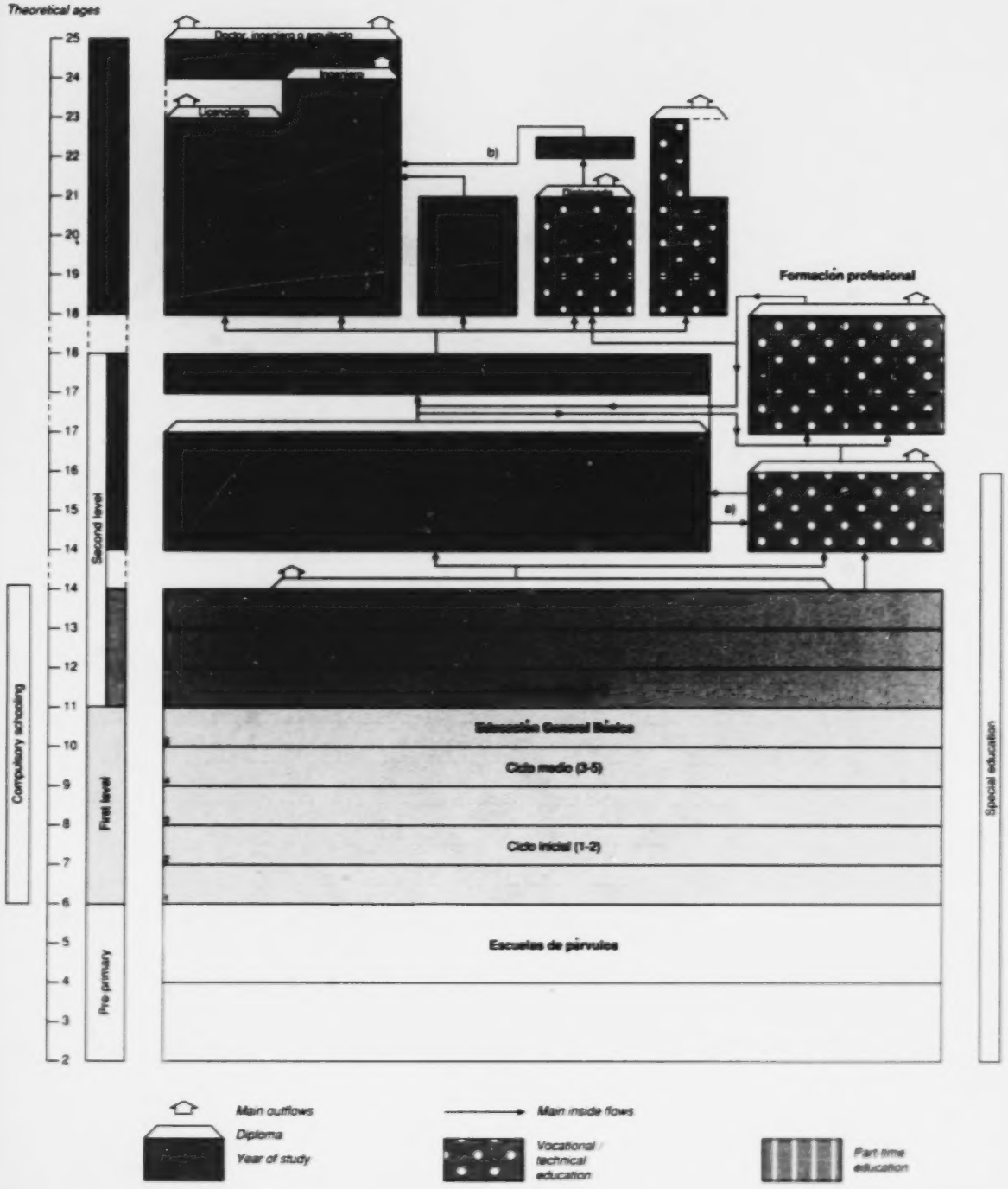
1. Systematic training in the world of work (i. e. apprenticeship 3 - 5 years).

PORTUGAL



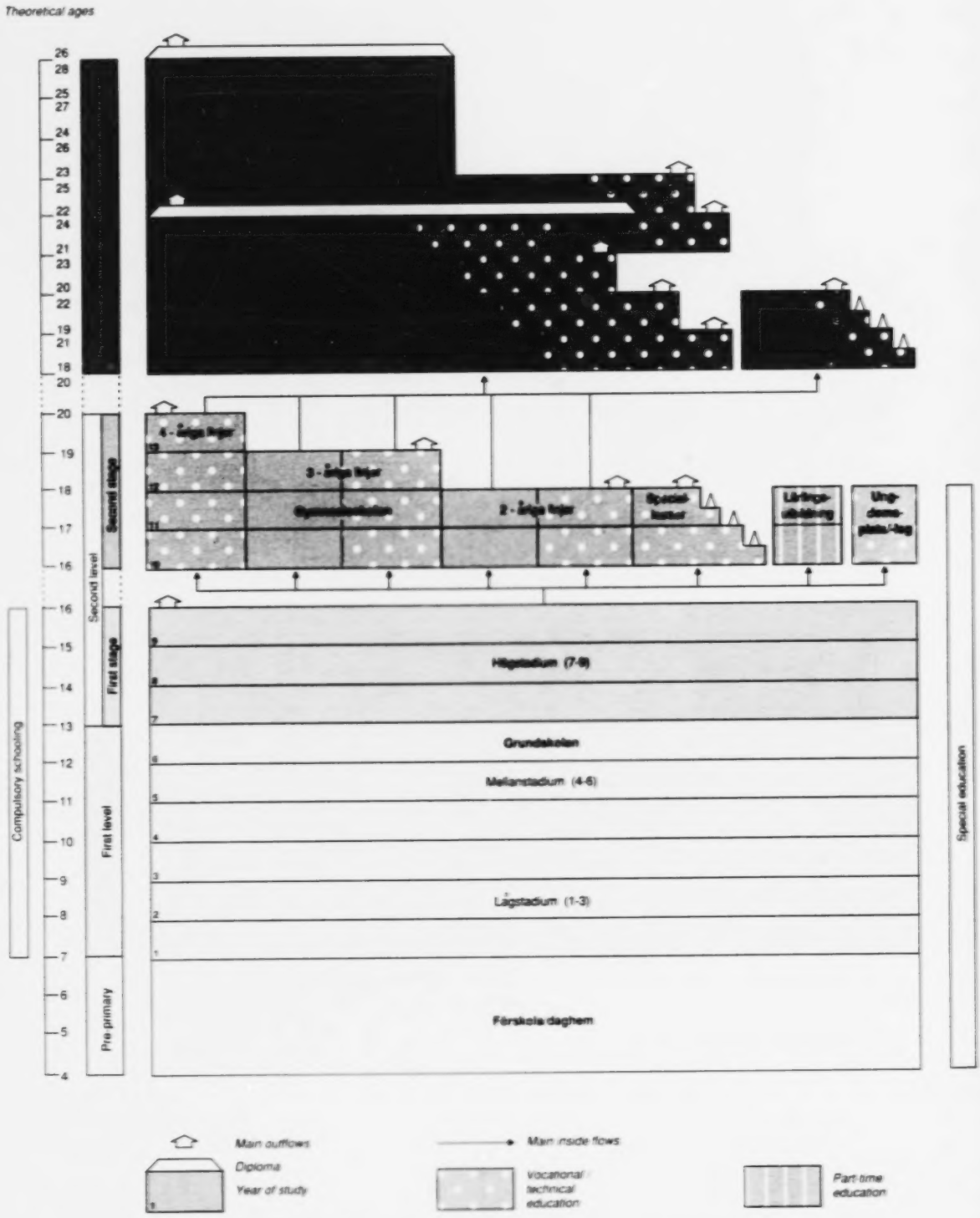
1. For young people 14-18 years old to complete basic education. Day courses for those not working and evening courses for workers.

SPAIN



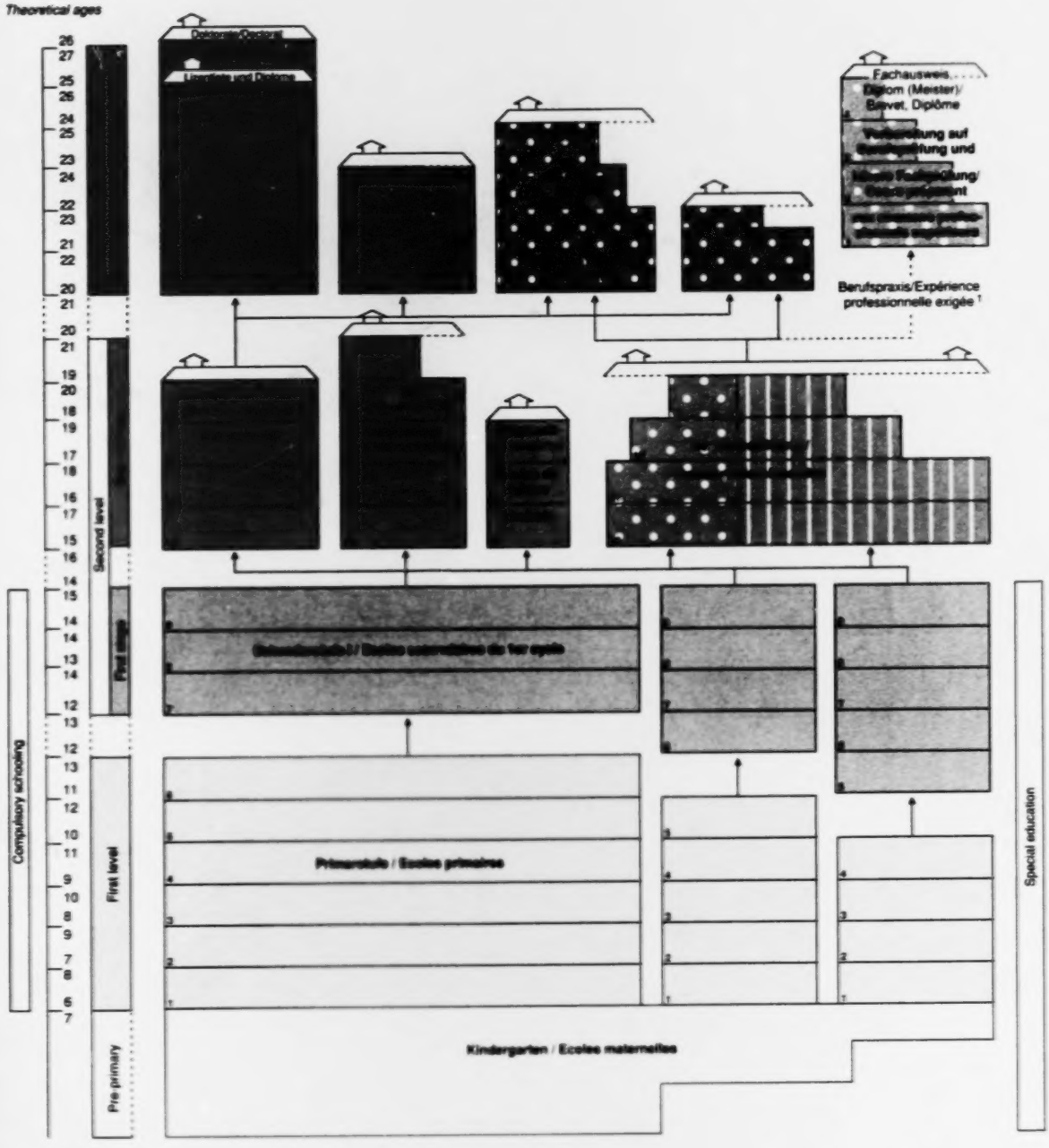
a) Transfer possible with partial recognition of preceding programmes.
b) For specific programmes.

SWEDEN



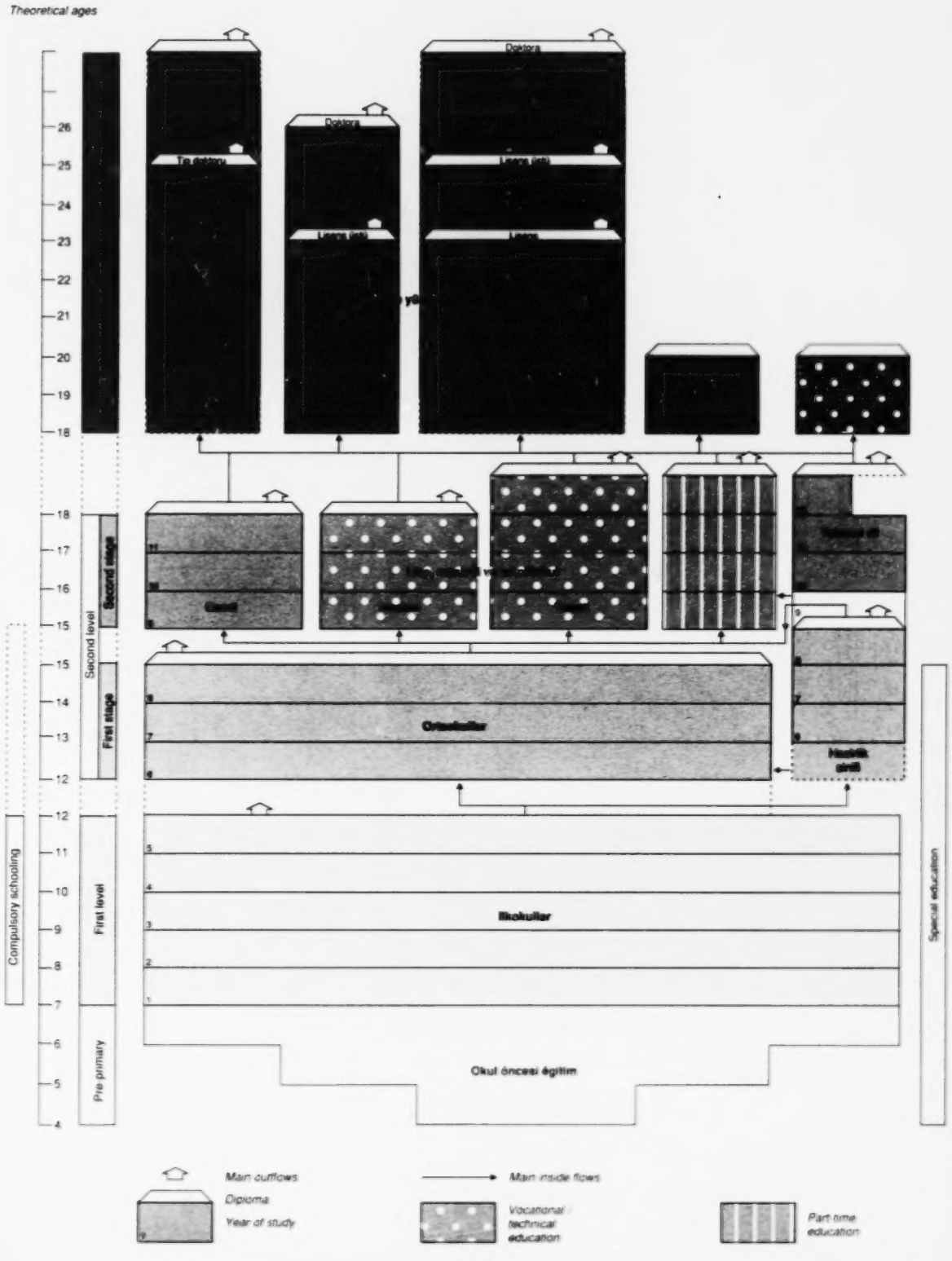
Programmes at upper secondary level giving access to post-secondary education are also provided through municipal adult education (KOMVUX) and folk high schools (Folkhögskolan). The minimum age for enrolment is 18 years.

SWITZERLAND



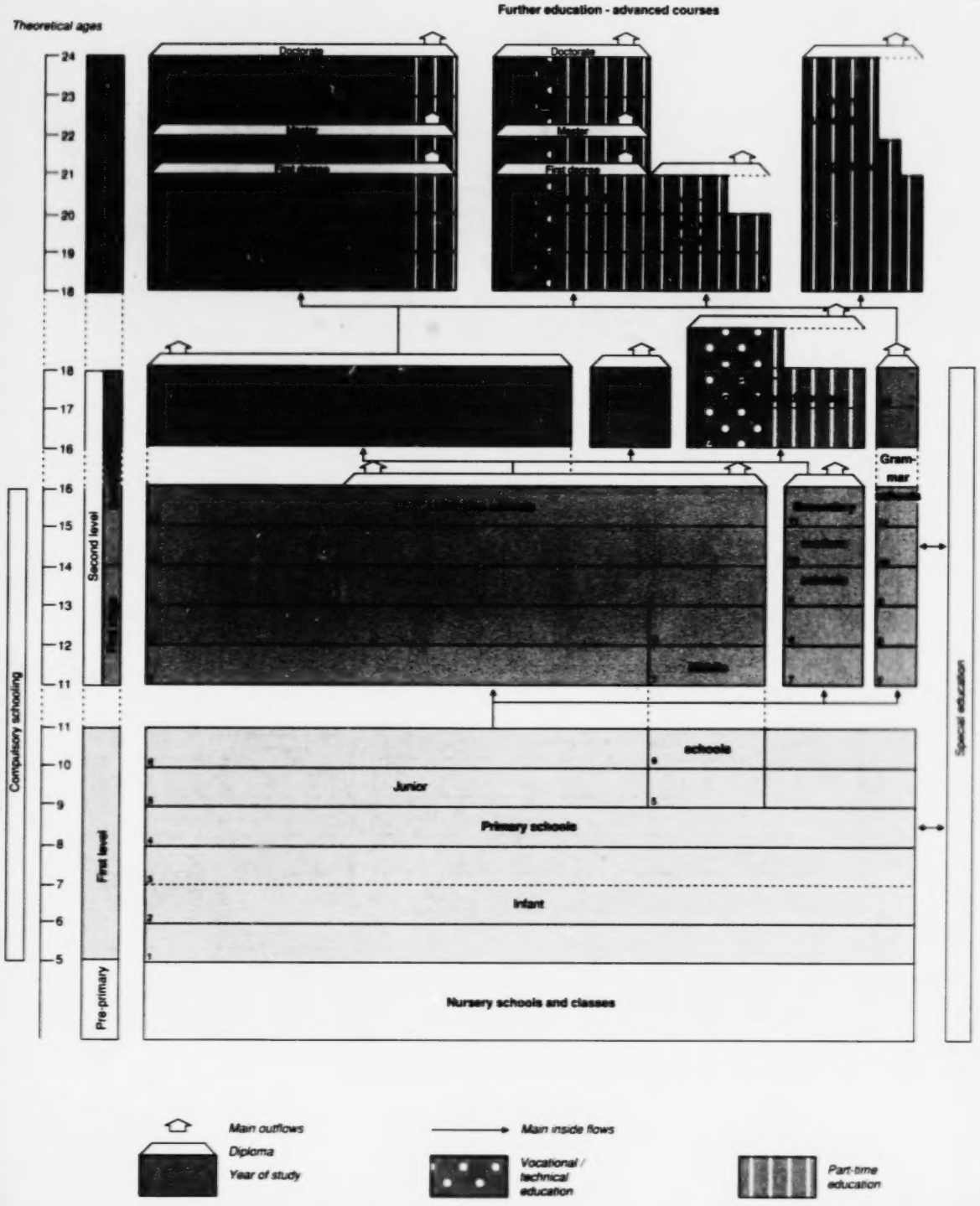
1. Work experience required.

TURKEY

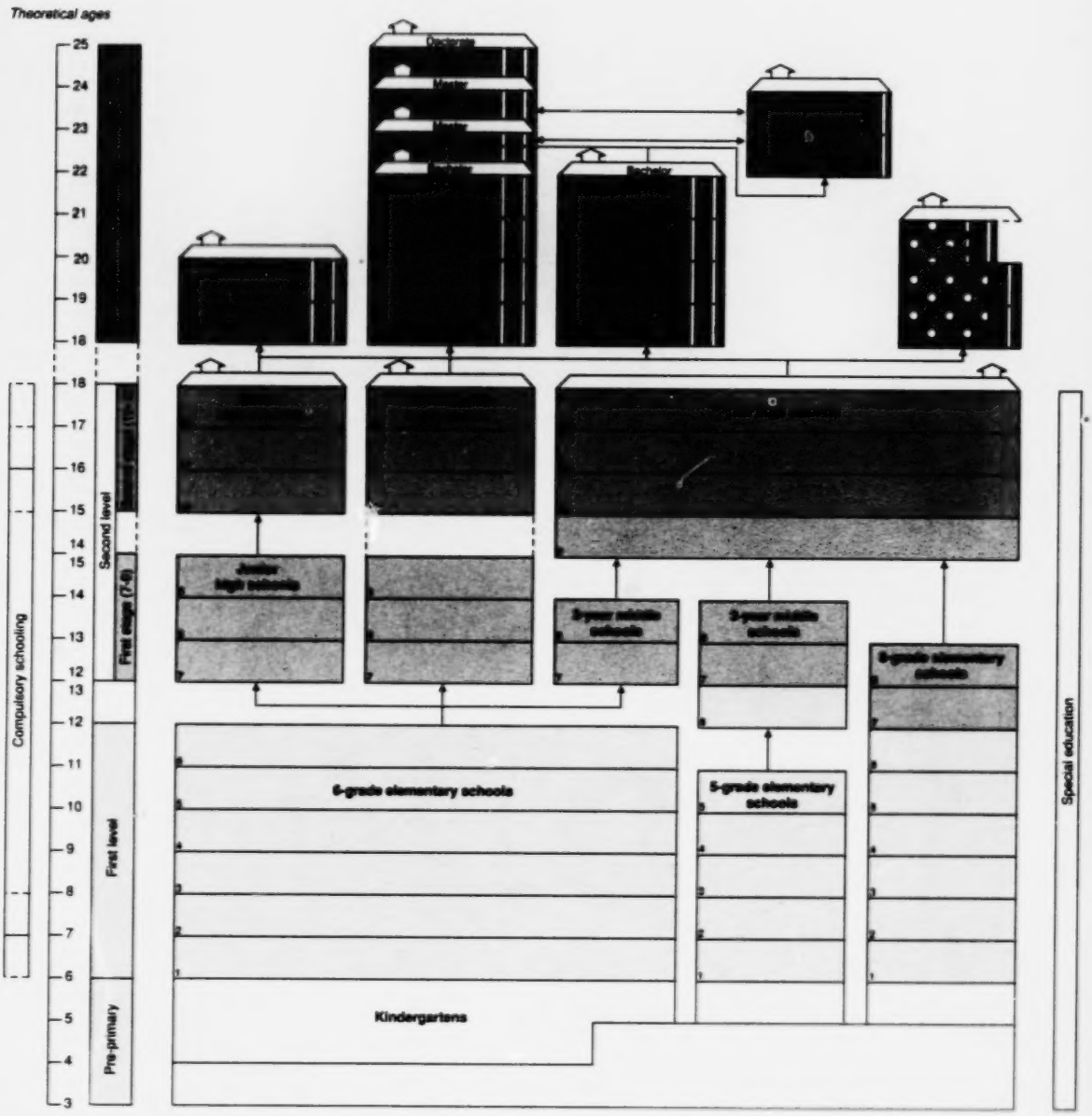

Theoretical ages
Doktora
Doktora
Doktora
Lisans
Lisans
Lisans
Second level
Second stage
First stage
Compulsory schooling
First level
Pre primary
Special education
Ilkokullar
Okul öncesi eğitim
Main outflows
Diploma
Year of study
Main inside flows
Vocational / technical education
Part time education

UNITED KINGDOM - ENGLAND AND WALES

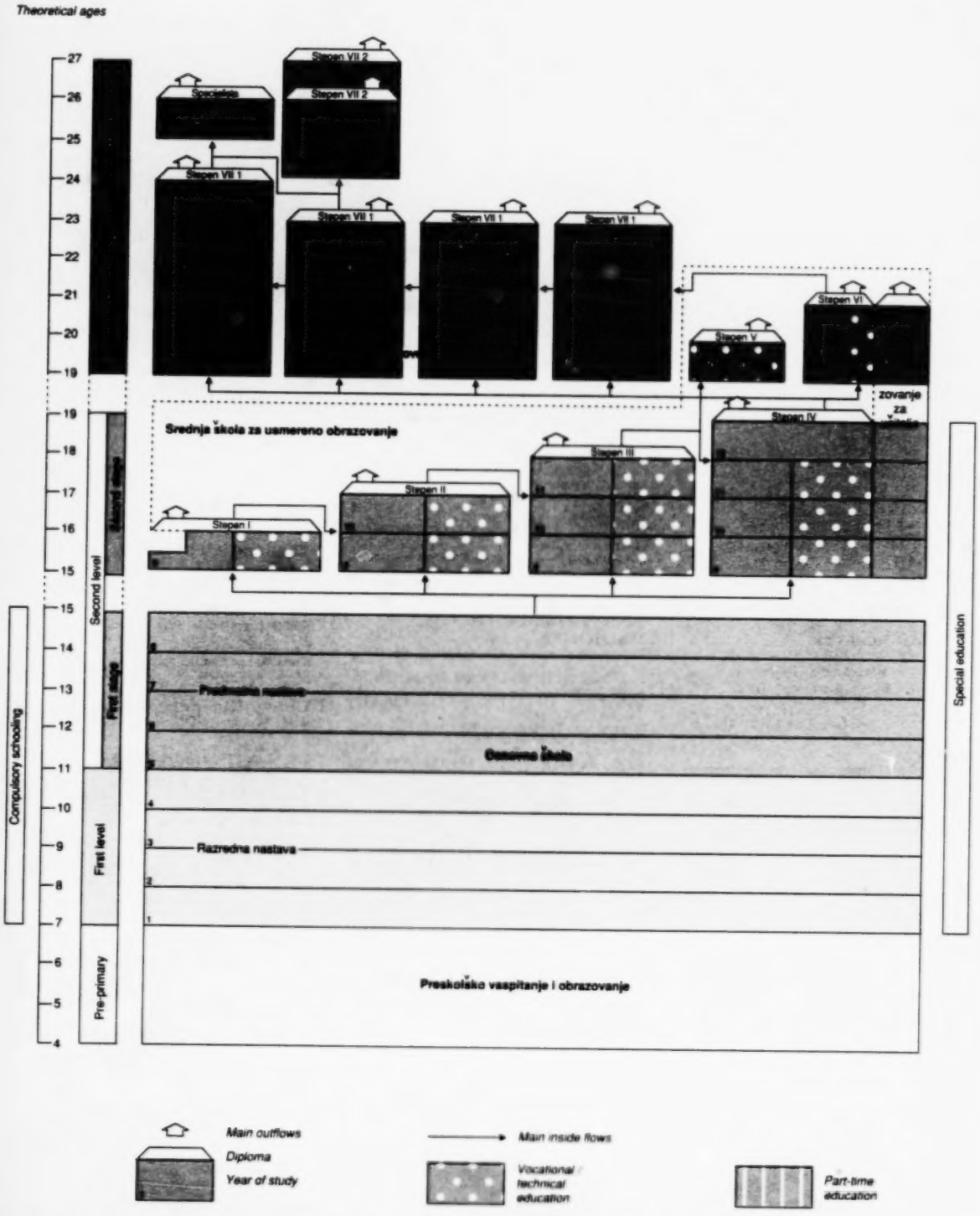
(The education system is somewhat different in Scotland and in Northern Ireland)



UNITED STATES



YUGOSLAVIA


Theoretical ages
27
26
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5
4
Stepen VII 2
Specijalna
Stepen VII 2
Stepen VII 1
Stepen VII 1
Stepen VII 1
Stepen VII 1
Stepen VI
Stepen V
zovanje
za
Stepen IV
Srednja škola za usmereno obrazovanje
Stepen III
Stepen II
Stepen I
Second level
Second stage
First stage
First level
Pre-primary
Compulsory schooling
Special education
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
1
Razredna nastava
Preskolsko vaspitanje i obrazovanje
Main outflows
Diploma
Year of study
Main inside flows
Vocational / technical education
Part-time education

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